BARNES'S
SCHOOL
HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED
STATES

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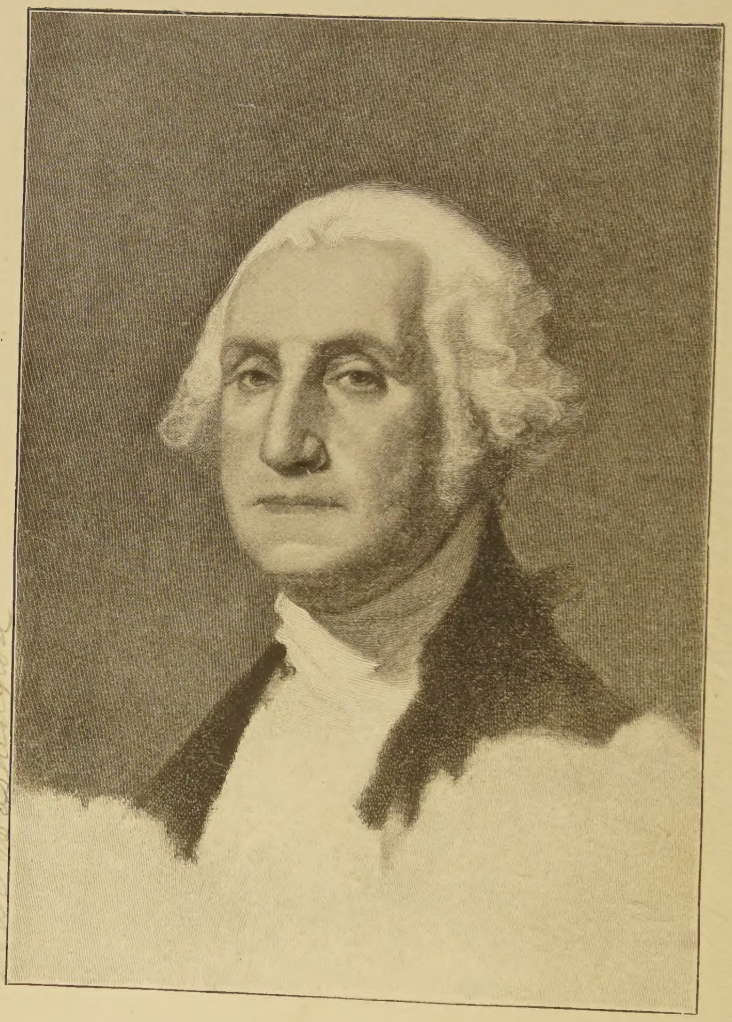

G. Washington

BARNES'S SCHOOL HISTORY

OF THE

UNITED STATES

BEING A REVISION OF
A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

BY

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AND
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PREFACE

The wide and constant use which has been accorded to Barnes's Brief History of the United States, for more than thirty years and in all parts of the country, proves that it possesses in an eminent degree those qualities of style and arrangement which adapt a school text-book for practical class work and make it popular as a teaching tool.

But since it was published the acts of a new generation have added momentous chapters to the story of our national life. Within this period the industrial and financial center of the world has crossed the Atlantic to our shores, and the United States has attained acknowledged preëminence among the world powers of the earth. Within this period, too, there has been a gradual but constant shifting of the point of view from which the history of a country is regarded, and of the methods employed in teaching it. Descriptions of battles and of the movements of armies have come to be considered of less importance, and the social condition and industries of the people of far greater importance, than they formerly were; and even in the grammar school the pupil is expected to pursue a longer or shorter course of collateral reading in history outside of his text-book.

In order that these modified views of history and the method of teaching it might be incorporated into the Barnes's History, the thorough revision resulting in the present volume was undertaken.

In this revision a consistent effort has been made to retain those features of the older book which gave it its extraordinary popularity: its main division into epochs; its topical arrangement; its interesting footnotes containing collateral facts, minor

events, and brief biographies; and, most important of all, the fascinating literary style of Dr. Steele. Indeed, his language has been retained throughout the greater portion of the book, and in all cases where it conformed to the latest and best historical authorities, with which the entire work has been rigorously compared. In the present volume, however, the treatment of battles has been somewhat curtailed and greater prominence has been given to the life of the people and to the wonderful development of our industries. Carefully selected references for a brief course of collateral reading have been inserted at frequent intervals throughout the book, and in the appendix is given a classified list of works from which further selections may be made as desired. New maps and pictures have been prepared and placed in close connection with the text which they illustrate.

The words which Dr. Steele used in 1871, in giving to the public the original edition of his history, apply with equal force to the present revision:

"This work is offered to American youth in the confident belief that as they study the wonderful history of their native land they will learn to prize their birthright more highly, and treasure it more carefully. Their patriotism must be kindled when they come to see how slowly, yet how gloriously, this tree of liberty has grown, what storms have wrenched its boughs, what sweat of toil and blood has moistened its roots, what eager eyes have watched every out-springing bud, what brave hearts have defended it, loving it even unto death. A heritage thus sanctified by the heroism and devotion of the fathers can not but elicit the choicest care and tenderest love of the sons."

ESTHER BAKER STEELE.

Elmira, N. Y., February, 1903.

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A SCHOOL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

INTRODUCTION

The Indians.—A few hundred years ago there were no white men in our country. Nearly all the land was without inhabitants, but scattered about here and there were villages or groups of rude dwellings occupied by Indians. In what is now the main part of the United States there were at that time fewer people than there are to-day in the single city of St. Louis.

Indians had lived in America for no one knows how long—for many centuries at least. They were probably descended from the same people as the Chinese and other natives of eastern Asia; but where that people lived, and when, are alike unknown. It may be that America was first settled in that remote age when the Arctic regions were warmer than now, and when, as geology teaches, this continent was connected by land both with Asia and with Europe. At a later period, small parties may have crossed Bering Strait, or vessels may have been driven by winds and currents across the Pacific Ocean, their crews being thankful to escape a watery grave by settling a new country.

American Antiquities.—The Indians of Mexico, Central America, and especially Peru, had advanced almost to a

state of civilization; and we find there the ruins of their ancient cities, stone temples, and paved roads.

Within the limits of our own country the Indians were in a condition of savagery or barbarism. The most famous monuments of the prehistoric inhabitants of the country are *mounds* of earth found in vast numbers in the eastern half of the Mississippi valley. There are more than 10,000 of them in Ohio alone. They are of many shapes—circular, square, and irregular embankments, cones, pyramids, and figures of gigantic animals;[1] and are of all sizes up to several acres in area, or several hundred or thousand feet in length. On some of them were found growing forest trees of the largest size. The mounds were built by the Indians or their ancestors, for a variety of purposes: some were used for military defense, some served as burial mounds, some marked the sites of huts or villages, and some were designed for religious purposes. Buried in the mounds, often with the bodies of the dead, there have been found many articles used by the Indians, including shells, pottery, rude textiles, some implements of copper that was dug from old pits still to be seen in the Lake Superior region, and, in the later mounds, beads which must have been received from the early visitors to America from Europe.

In the southwest of our country there are ruins of cliff dwellings and *pueblos* (pweb'lōz), and some pueblos that are still occupied. A pueblo was a vast apartment house, built of stone or of sun-dried clay, large enough for a whole village of perhaps several thousand people. The pueblos were several stories high, and their rooms were entered

[1] An embankment in Adams County, Ohio, represents very accurately a serpent 1000 feet long. Its body winds with graceful curves, and in its widely extended jaws lies a figure which the animal seems about to swallow.

through holes in the roof, which was reached by ladders. Such buildings were designed for protection against sud-

A PUEBLO.

den attacks by savage foes. The Pueblo Indians irrigated and tilled the soil, made good pottery, and wove cloth.

Tribes.—The Indians of our country were divided into several hundred tribes, speaking different languages or dialects, and having different customs. In general, each tribe lived in a village or group of villages by itself. According to their languages, the different tribes have been arranged in about fifty distinct groups, each group including the tribes of a common origin. Five of the most important groups are the Iroquoi'an, Algon'quian, Muskho'gean, Siouan (soo'an), and Shosho'nean. Of the Indians now living in the United States more than half belong to these five groups.

The Iroquoian tribes lived in a large region surrounding Lakes Erie and Ontario, and in a smaller district in the southern Appalachian Mountains. Among the tribes of this group which we shall meet later in the history of our country are the five Iroquois tribes,[1] the Tuscaro'ras, and the Cherokees'.

The Algonquian tribes were very numerous. Their territory surrounded the northern Iroquoian region, and extended from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River in the region of the Ohio valley and the Great Lakes.

The Muskhogean tribes lived in the South, east of the Mississippi River and north of the Gulf of Mexico. They were sun worshipers, and were better skilled in agriculture than most other Indians.

The Siouan tribes occupied the western side of the Mississippi basin. Some of them were among the most warlike of all Indians.

The Shoshonean tribes occupied the greater part of the Rocky Mountain highland and the southern part of the Great Plains.

Indian Characteristics. — *Arts and Inventions.* — The Indian built no cities, no ships, no churches, no schoolhouses. In general he constructed only temporary wigwams of bark or skins, and canoes of birch bark. He made neither roads nor bridges, but followed footpaths through the forest, and swam the streams. His highest art was expended in a simple bow and arrow.

Progress and Government.—He made no advancement,

[1] The Five Nations of Iroquois (Sen'ecas, Cayu'gas, Ononda'gas, Onei'das, and Mo'hawks) formed a confederacy styled the "Long House," because these Indians dwelt in bark houses often 250 feet in length and 30 feet wide, each holding twenty or thirty families. This league formed, in fact, a loosely organized republic, with a congress of the chiefs or sachems of the different tribes. Fierce, bloodthirsty, and fond of conquest, the Iroquois might perhaps have subdued the continent if the white man had not come. Early travelers called them the Romans of the New World.

but each son emulated the prowess of his father in the hunt and the fight. The hunting ground and the battle-field embraced everything of real honor or value. So the son was educated to throw the tomahawk, shoot the arrow, and catch fish with the spear. He knew nothing of books, paper, writing, or history. The Indian respected the chiefs or wise men of his tribe, but they governed by influence rather than by authority. Even when the tribal council decided to make war, every Indian was free to fight or not, as he chose.

Domestic Life.—The Indian had neither cow nor beast of burden. He regarded all labor as degrading and fit only for women. His squaw, therefore, built his wigwam,

INDIAN LIFE.

cut his wood, and carried his burdens when he journeyed. While he hunted or fished, she cleared the land for his corn by burning down the trees, scratched the ground

with a crooked stick or dug it with a clam shell, dressed skins for his clothing, and prepared his food. The leavings of her lord's feast sufficed for her, and the coldest place in the wigwam was hers.

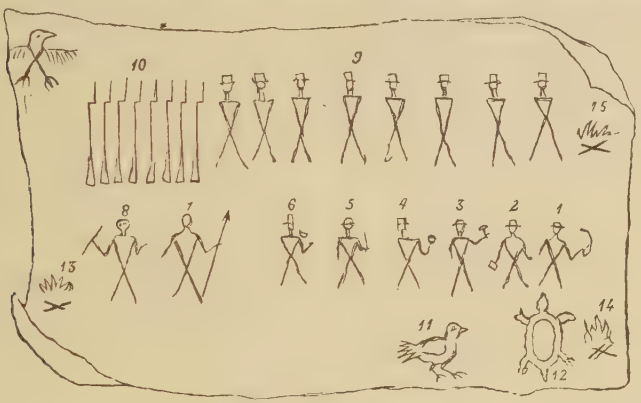
Disposition.—In war the Indian was brave and alert, but cruel and revengeful, preferring treachery and cunning to open battle. At home he was lazy, improvident, and an inveterate gambler. He delighted in finery and trinkets, and decked his unclean person with paint and feathers. His grave and haughty demeanor repelled the stranger; but he was grateful for favors, and his wigwam always stood hospitably open to the poorest and meanest of his tribe.

Endurance.—He could endure great fatigue, and in his expeditions often lay without shelter in the severest weather. It was his glory to bear the most horrible tortures without a sign of suffering.

Religion.—If he had any ideas of a Supreme Being, they were vague and degraded. His dream of a heaven was of happy hunting grounds or of gay feasts. He worshiped no idols, but peopled all nature with spirits, which dwelt not only in birds, beasts, and reptiles, but also in lakes, rivers, and waterfalls. As he believed these had power to help or harm men, he lived in constant fear of offending them. He apologized, therefore, to the animals he killed, and made solemn promises to fishes that their bones should be respected. He placed great stress on dreams, and his camp swarmed with sorcerers and fortune tellers.

The Indian of the Present.—Such was the Indian three hundred years ago, and such is many an Indian to-day. He has opposed the encroachments of the settler, and the building of railroads. But he could not stop the tide of

immigration. Almost all the Indians in this country now have been gathered into tracts of land called reservations.



INDIAN HIEROGLYPHICS.[1]

Many of them are supported in partial idleness by our government, in fulfillment of treaties; but some, especially in the Indian Territory, have become civilized and are prosperous — they have good houses and schools, and live much like the white men. It is earnestly to be hoped that all the red men may yet be Christianized and taught the arts of industry and peace.

The Northmen (descendants of the early inhabitants of Norway and Sweden) were probably the first Europeans to set foot on the American continent. Iceland was settled by Northmen more than a thousand years ago; and there are Icelandic traditions which tell about a Norse colony founded in Greenland, and about some early voyages to the land south of it. They say that one Bjarni

[1] This cut represents a species of picture writing occasionally used by the Indians. Some Indian guides wished to inform their comrades that a company of fourteen whites and two Indians had spent the night at a certain place. Nos. 9, 10 indicate the white soldiers and their arms; No. 1 is the captain, with a sword; No. 2 the secretary, with the book; No. 3 the geologist, with a hammer; Nos. 4, 5, 6 are attendants; Nos. 7, 8 are the guides, without hats; Nos. 11, 12 show what they ate in camp; Nos. 13, 14, 15 indicate how many fires they made.

(be ar'ne) first saw the land to the south, while driven out of his course on his way to Greenland. A few years later, they say, about the year 1000, Leif Er'icsson explored the coast southward and discovered "Vinland" (perhaps New England), returning to Greenland with a load of timber. Afterwards other adventurers made successful voyages, established a temporary settlement, and bartered with the natives. Snor'ro, son of one of these settlers, is said to have been the first child born of European parents upon our shore.[1] How much credit is to be given to these traditions is uncertain, but the story is probably true in the main. There was certainly a Norse colony in Greenland not long after the time stated in the traditions; and ruins of its stone buildings are still to be seen. But on this continent the Northmen left no evidence of their visits.[2] Admitting, however, the claim made for the Northmen, the fact is barren of all results. No permanent settlements were made, the route hither was lost, and even the existence of the continent was forgotten.

The true history of this country begins with the discovery of America by Columbus in 1492. It naturally divides itself into six great epochs.

First Epoch.— *Early Discoveries and Explorations.*— This epoch extends from the discovery of America in 1492, to the settlement at Jamestown, Va., in 1607. During this period various European nations were exploring the southern and eastern parts of our country.

[1] Snorro was the founder of an illustrious family. One of his descendants is said to have been Albert Thor'waldsen, the great Danish sculptor of the nineteenth century. The beautiful photographs of Thorwaldsen's "Day," "Night," and "The Seasons," which hang in so many American homes, thus acquire a new interest by being linked with the boy born on New England shores so many centuries ago.

[2] The rock inscription at Dighton, Mass., was the work of Indians; the famous stone tower at Newport, R. I., was a windmill built by English settlers. Both, however, were for a time supposed by many to have been the work of Northmen.

Second Epoch.— *Development of the English Colonies.*— The second epoch extends from the settlement at Jamestown, Va., in 1607, to the breaking out of the Revolutionary War in 1775. During this period the scattered settlements along the Atlantic coast grew into thirteen flourishing colonies, subject to Great Britain.

Third Epoch.— *The Revolutionary War.*— This epoch extends from the breaking out of the Revolutionary War in 1775, to the beginning of government under the Constitution in 1789. During this period the colonies threw off the government of Great Britain and established their independence.

Fourth Epoch.—*Development of the States* (*to* 1861).— This epoch extends from the inception of the Constitution in 1789, to the breaking out of the Civil War in 1861. During this period great additions were made to our territory, the States increased in number from thirteen to thirty-four, and the country increased rapidly in population and wealth.

Fifth Epoch.— *The Civil War.*— This epoch extends from the breaking out of the Civil War in 1861, to the surrender of the Confederate armies in 1865. During this period a gigantic strife was carried on between the Northern and the Southern States, the former struggling for the perpetuation of the Union, and the latter for its division.

Sixth Epoch.— *Development of the Nation* (*since* 1865).— The sixth epoch extends from the close of the Civil War in 1865, to the present time. During this period the different problems growing out of the Civil War have been solved, the number of States has been further increased, and in industry and wealth the country has become the greatest in the world.

COLLATERAL READINGS

The Indians.—Fiske's *Discovery of America*, vol. i. pp. 1-21, 140-147; or Parkman's *Conspiracy of Pontiac*, chap. i.

The Northmen.—Fiske's *Discovery of America*, vol. i. pp. 162-178.

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EPOCH I.—EARLY DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

Geographical Knowledge in the Fifteenth Century.— The people of Europe in the fifteenth century had never heard of America.[1] About that time a great desire for geographical knowledge was awakened. The compass and the astrolabe — an instrument for ascertaining latitude — had given a new impulse to navigation. Voyagers were no longer compelled to creep along the shore, but began to strike out boldly into the open sea. The art of printing had just come into use, and books of travel were eagerly read. Marco Polo and other adventurers returning from the East told wonderful tales of the wealth of Asiatic cities.

FIFTEENTH-CENTURY SHIP.

Genoa and Venice, commanding the commerce of the Mediterranean, had become enriched by trade with the East. The costly shawls,

[1] At the opening of modern history the known world comprised only Europe, southwestern Asia, and a strip of northern Africa. Cape Nun was considered the limit of navigation on the African coast. The most absurd ideas prevailed in regard to the regions beyond. The water at the equator was thought to be boiling hot; the tropic sun, it was said, would permanently blacken the skin of any white man who ventured farther south; and the unknown seas were supposed to be peopled by terrible sea monsters.

spices, and silks of Persia and India were borne by caravans and ships to the Red Sea, thence on camels across

THE KNOWN WORLD IN 1490.

the desert to the Nile, and lastly by ship over the Mediterranean to Europe; or they were carried by caravans to the Black Sea or to the Mediterranean, and thence by ship to western Europe. But when the Turks took Constantinople (1453) they put a sudden end to much of this commerce, and as they advanced on Egypt they threatened to end the Eastern trade entirely.

The great problem of the age was how to reach the East Indies by sea, and thus give a new and cheaper route to their rich products.[1]

[1] The Portuguese were at this time the most enterprising navigators in Europe. Prince Henry devoted himself to the study of astronomy, founded an observatory

The Discovery of America.— Columbus[1] conceived that he could reach the East Indies by sailing west. He believed the earth to be round, while almost every one then thought it to be flat. He, however, thought it was smaller than it really is, and that Asia extended much farther round the world to the east than it does. Hence he argued that by going a few hundred leagues west he would reach the eastern coast of Asia.[2] He was determined to try this new route, but was too poor to pay for the necessary ships and provisions.

and a naval college, collected all existing information concerning the earth's surface, and prepared new and more accurate charts for navigators. His father, John I., and his grandnephew, John II., encouraged maritime explorations. Under such auspices the Portuguese sailors made voyage after voyage along the African coast. They discovered the Azōres' and Cape Verde Islands, crossed the dreaded equator, and finally, under Diaz (dee'ahth), reached the southern extremity of Africa, and sailed several hundred miles eastward (1486). On his return, Diaz told of the cape which he called Stormy Cape; but the king, believing the long-desired route to India was now found, rechristened it the Cape of Good Hope.

[1] Christopher Columbus was born in Genoa, Italy, about 1435. He was trained for the sea from his childhood. As he was the eldest of four children, and his father a poor wool comber, much care devolved upon him. It is said that at thirty his hair was white from trouble and anxiety.

Columbus was determined, shrewd, and intensely religious. He believed himself to be divinely called to "carry the true faith into the uttermost parts of the earth." Inspired by this thought, no discouragement or contumely could drive him to despair. It was eighteen years from the conception of his plan to the time when he was enabled to try his new route. During all this time his life was a marvel of patience, and of brave devotion to his one purpose. His sorrows were many; his triumph was brief. Evil men maligned him to Ferdinand and Isabella, the Spanish monarchs who supplied his ships. Disregarding their promise that he should be governor general over all the lands he might discover, the king and queen sent out another governor, and by his order Columbus was taken home in chains! It is sad to know that although Ferdinand and Isabella endeavored to soothe his wounded spirit by many attentions, they never restored to him his lawful rights. From fluent promises they passed at last to total neglect, and Columbus died a grieved and disappointed old man. At his request, his chains were buried with him, a touching memorial of Spanish ingratitude.

[2] Several facts served to strengthen the faith of Columbus in the correctness of his theory. The Azores and the Madeira, Canary, and Cape Verde islands, being the most westerly lands then known, were the outposts of geographical knowledge. There had been washed on their shores, by currents from the west, pieces of wood curiously carved, trees and seeds of unknown species, and especially the bodies of two men of strange color and visage.

Columbus at the Court of Portugal.— He accordingly laid his plan before King John of Portugal, who referred it to his geographers. They pronounced it a visionary scheme. With a lurking feeling, however, that there might be truth in it, the king had the meanness to dispatch a vessel secretly to test the matter. The pilot had the charts of Columbus, but lacked his courage. After sailing westward from Cape Verde Islands for a few days, and seeing nothing but a wide waste of wildly tossing waves, he returned, ridiculing the idea.

Columbus at the Court of Spain.— Columbus, disheartened by this treachery, betook himself to Spain. During seven long years he importuned King Ferdinand and others for help in his plan. All this while he was regarded as a visionary fellow, and when he passed along the streets, even the children touched their foreheads and smiled. The learned council at Salamanca promptly declared the plan too foolish for serious attention.[1] Columbus gained a few influential friends, but King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella declined to aid him. Turning away sadly, Columbus determined to go to France.

Columbus Successful.— His friends at the Spanish court, at this juncture, laid the matter before Queen Isabella, and she was finally won to his cause. The king remained indifferent and pleaded the want of funds. The queen in her earnestness exclaimed, "I pledge my jewels to raise the money." But her sacrifice was not required. The royal treasurer advanced most of the money, and the

[1] "It is absurd," said those wise men. "Who is so foolish as to believe that there are people on the other side of the world, walking with their heels upward and their heads hanging down? And then, how can a ship get there? The torrid zone, through which they must pass, is a region of fire, where the very waves boil. And even if a ship could perchance get around there safely, how could it ever get back? Can a ship sail uphill?" All of which sounds very strange to us now, when every year hundreds of travelers make the entire circuit of the globe.

friends of Columbus the remainder. Columbus had succeeded at last, after eighteen years of waiting.

COLUMBUS RECALLED.

Columbus's Equipment.—Though he was armed with the king's authority, Columbus obtained vessels and sailors with the greatest difficulty. The boldest seamen shrank from such a desperate undertaking. At last three small vessels were manned: the *Pinta* (peen'tah), *Santa Maria* (sahn'tah mah-ree'ah), and *Niña* (neen'yah). They sailed from Palos (pah'lōs), Spain, August 3, 1492.

Incidents of the Voyage.—They went first to the Canaries and then sailed westward on the untried sea. When the sailors saw the last trace of land fade from their sight, many, even of the bravest, burst into tears. As they proceeded, their hearts were wrung by superstitious fears. To their dismay, the compass began to vary from its usual direction, and they believed that they were coming into a region where the very laws of nature were changed. They came into the track of the trade wind, which wafted them steadily westward. This, they were sure, was carrying them to destruction, for how could they ever return against it? Signs of land, such as flocks of birds and fresh, green plants, were often seen, and the clouds near the horizon assumed the look of land; but they disappeared, and only

the broad ocean spread out before them as they advanced. The sailors, so often deceived, lost heart and insisted upon returning home. Columbus, with wonderful tact and patience, explained all these appearances. But the more he argued, the louder became their murmurs. At last they secretly determined to throw him overboard. Although he knew their feelings, he did not waver, but declared that he would proceed till the enterprise was accomplished.

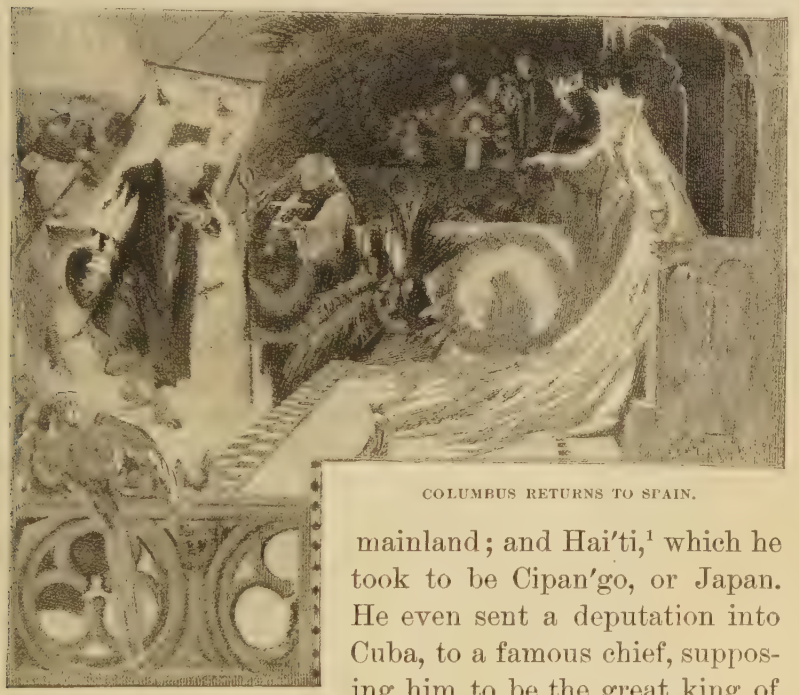
Soon, signs of land silenced their murmurs. A staff, artificially carved, and a branch of thorn with berries floated near. All was now eager expectation. In the evening Columbus beheld a light rising and falling in the distance, as of a torch borne by one walking. Later at night the joyful cry of "Land!" rang out from the *Pinta*. In the morning the shore of an island, green with tropical verdure, lay smiling before them.

The Landing.— Columbus, dressed in a splendid military suit of scarlet embroidered with gold, and followed by a retinue of his officers and men bearing banners, landed upon this island Friday, October 12, 1492. He threw himself upon his knees, kissed the earth, and with tears of joy gave thanks to God. He then formally planted the cross and took possession of the country in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella.[1]

Further Discoveries.— Columbus named the island San Salvador. He supposed that he had reached one of the islands lying off the eastern coast of India (Asia), and he therefore called the dark-hued natives Indians. Careful inquiries were made concerning the rich products of the

[1] This island was one of the Bahamas — probably Watling Island. The wondering natives who crowded the shore gazed on the spectacle with awe. They supposed the ships to be huge white-winged birds, and the Spaniards to have come from heaven.

East, such as spices, precious stones, and especially gold. But the simple people had only a few golden ornaments. These they readily bartered for small bells. Columbus then visited Cuba, which he thought was part of the Asian



COLUMBUS RETURNS TO SPAIN.

mainland; and Hai'ti,[1] which he took to be Cipan'go, or Japan. He even sent a deputation into Cuba, to a famous chief, supposing him to be the great king of Tartary! At last, urged by his crew, he gave up the search for Oriental treasure and sailed for home.

His Reception, on his return, was flattering in the extreme. The whole nation took a holiday. His appearance was hailed with shouts and the ringing of bells. The king and queen were dazzled by their new and sudden

[1] The *Pinta* had become separated from the other ships, and the *Santa Maria* was wrecked on the shores of Haiti — or Hispanio'la, as it was first named. As the *Nina* was too small to carry a double crew, a colony of forty men was left on this island — the first settlement of Spaniards in the western hemisphere. When Columbus came here on his second voyage he found that every one of these settlers had perished.

acquisition. As Columbus told them of the beautiful land he had found, its brilliant birds, its tropical forests, its delightful climate, and, above all, its natives waiting to be converted to the Christian faith, they sank upon their knees and gave thanks to God.

The Mistake of Columbus.— Columbus never even suspected that there was any such continent as America. People then supposed that all the land in the world was embraced in the three parts or continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa, with the adjacent islands. Columbus did not set out to discover a new world. He was instead trying a new route to the eastern coast of Asia, which he thought was much nearer than it really is. He found some tropical islands and coasts about where he had expected to find those of Asia; and for many years everybody thought that he had succeeded in his quest. He made three later voyages to the same region, exploring more islands and coasts.[1] But he never lost the delusion that these lands were on the eastern coast of Asia, and died ignorant of the fact that he had really discovered a new world.[2]

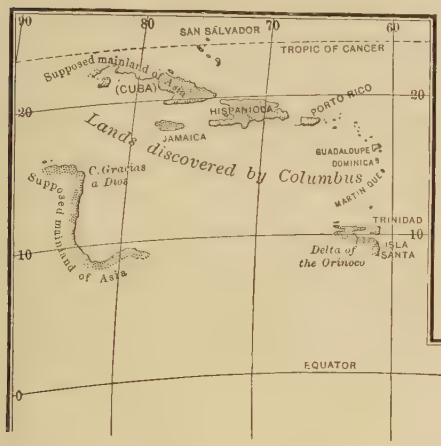
How America was named.— Amer'icus Vespu'cius,[3] an Italian in the service of Portugal, made a voyage along

[1] It was not till 1498, however, that he touched the mainland of America. This was on his third voyage, and the land found was near the mouth of the Orinoco River.

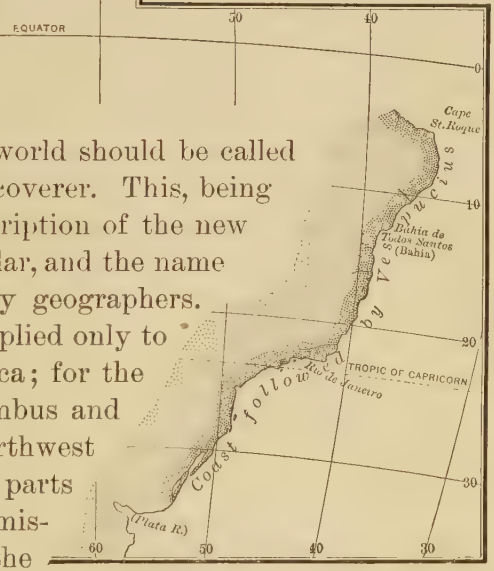
[2] The body of Columbus was buried at Valladolid. It was thence transported, in 1513, to the Carthusian Monastery of Seville, and twenty-three years later to the city of Santo Domingo, in the island of Haiti. In 1796 the remains, as was supposed, were taken to Havana with imposing ceremonies; and in 1898, after the war between Spain and the United States, they were conveyed to Seville, in Spain. But it is now claimed by some that this body is not that of the great admiral, but of another member of his family; for in 1877, while an excavation was being made near the Cathedral in Santo Domingo, a vault was opened and a leaden coffin was found containing human bones, and inscribed in Spanish: "Illustrious and renowned man, Christopher Columbus."

[3] In Italian this name is Amerigo Vespucci (ah mā ree'go ves poot'chee). Vespucius made several voyages of discovery. It is believed that on the first voyage, under Pinzon (peen thōn') and Solis in the service of Spain, he followed the coast from Yucatan northward around Florida; and that this was in 1497 — before Columbus had discovered the mainland.

the coast of what is now Brazil (1501).[1] This coast was so long and was so far southeast of the lands discovered by Columbus that it was supposed to be a hitherto unknown continent — a *new world.*



A letter from Vespucius, describing his voyages, was published (1507) by a German author, who suggested that the new part of the world should be called America after its discoverer. This, being the first printed description of the new world, was very popular, and the name was soon adopted by geographers. For a time it was applied only to part of South America; for the lands found by Columbus and others far to the northwest were supposed to be parts of Asia. When this mistake was corrected, the name was naturally given to the whole of the New World.



John Cab'ot, an Italian navigator living in Bristol, England, obtained authority from King Henry VII. to make

[1] In 1497 an expedition under Väsco dä Gä'ma sailed from Portugal, and following the track of Diaz around the Cape of Good Hope, crossed the Indian Ocean, reached India, and two years later returned to Portugal laden with rich cargoes from the Orient. The problem of the sea route was solved! On Gama's return, a fleet under

a voyage of discovery to the east, west, or north. After a voyage to the west, he came in sight of a sterile region, probably Labrador (map, p. 45), and sailed along the coast for many leagues. This was in 1497, fourteen months before Columbus discovered the continent. Cabot supposed that he had reached the territory of the "Great Cham," king of Tartary. Nevertheless he landed, planted a banner, and took possession in the name of the king of England. On his return home he was received with much honor, was dressed in silk, and styled the "Grand Admiral."

The next year Cabot made a second voyage to the west. He probably discovered Newfoundland and coasted as far south as Cape Cod. There is no record of his return. It is believed that he died at sea, leaving his fleet to his son Sebastian, who accompanied him on his voyages. As the Cabots found no gold, precious stones, or spices, this expedition was considered a failure. Yet by their discoveries England claimed a title to a vast territory in the New World.

We shall now follow the principal explorations made within the limits of the future United States by the *Spanish*, *French*, *English*, and *Dutch*. The Spanish explored mainly the southern portion of North America; the French, the northern; and the English, the middle portion along the coast.[1]

Cabräl' set out for India, but on its way it sailed so far to the west that Cabral sighted land (Brazil) in a region where no land was supposed to be. He therefore sent word of his discovery to the Portuguese king, and the voyage of Vespucius was the result.

1 In South America Spain explored and acquired all the land except Brazil, which fell to Portugal. Pope Alexander VI. in 1493 apportioned the unknown regions of the earth to Spain and Portugal, giving to Spain all west and to Portugal all east of a line running north and south 100 leagues west of the Azores and Cape Verde Islands. This "line of demarcation" was soon changed, by treaty, to the meridian 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. By this change a large part of the then unheard-of New World was given to Portugal, and her claim was soon established by the discoveries of Cabral and Vespucius. But the chief energies of Portugal were devoted to Africa and especially India; for a time she monopolized the profitable Eastern trade which Venice and Genoa had lost.

COLLATERAL READING

Fiske's *Discovery of America*, vol. i. pp. 349–354, 395–446 (on Columbus); or vol. ii. pp. 1–18 (on the Cabots); or vol. ii. pp. 25–47 (on Vespucius).

SPANISH EXPLORATIONS

Feeling in Spain.— America, at this time, was to the Spaniard a land of vague but magnificent promise, where the simple natives wore the costliest gems unconscious of their value, and the sands of the rivers sparkled with gold. Every returning ship brought fresh news to quicken the pulse of Spanish enthusiasm. Now, Cor'tes had taken Mexico, and reveled in the wealth of the Montezu'mas; now, Pizar'ro had conquered Peru, and had captured the riches of the Incas; now, Magel'lan, sailing through the strait which bears his name, had crossed the Pacific, and one of his vessels, returning home by the Cape of Good Hope, had circumnavigated the globe.[1] Men of the highest rank and culture, warriors, adventurers, all flocked to the New World. Soon Cuba,[2] Hispaniola (Haiti), Porto Rico, and Jamaica were settled, and ruled by Spanish governors. From her American colonies, Spain received many shiploads of gold and silver, which helped to make her for a time the wealthiest and most powerful nation in Europe. Though the Spaniards enslaved the Indians, yet an ever-

[1] Magellan was a Portuguese in the service of Spain. His voyage was made in spite of mutiny, famine, and other great difficulties. In the Pacific, which he named, he discovered the Ladrones' and the Phil'ippines (1521). In the Philippines he joined a friendly chief in an attack on some natives who refused to accept Christianity, and he was killed while covering the retreat of his men after their defeat. The Spaniards took possession of the Philippines a few years later, and founded Manila in 1571 (map, p. 349). For about two hundred years all trade and communication between Spain and the Philippines were by way of Mexico or South America. Hence the connection of the Philippines with the New World began more than three centuries before this great Spanish colony was ceded to the United States.

[2] The natives of Cuba were subdued by Velasquez (vá lahs'keth) in 1512. As in the other islands of the West Indies, the Indians were reduced to slavery, and perished in great numbers. Havana, the greatest city of the West Indies, was founded in 1519.

present motive in their exploration of the New World was the desire to convert the Indians to Christianity. Among the Spanish explorers of the sixteenth century we notice the following:

Ponce de Leon was the first governor of Porto Rico. As such, he conquered the natives, and in 1511 founded San Juan (sahn hoo ahn′), the oldest city in United States territory. The next year, however, he was deprived of his government. Though an old man, he was still a gallant soldier, and he coveted the glory of further conquest to restore his tarnished reputation. Besides, he had heard of a magic fountain, in a great island to the northwest, where one might bathe and be made young again. Accordingly, he equipped an expedition and sailed in search of this fabled treasure. On Easter Sunday (*Pascua Florida* in Spanish), 1513, he came in sight of land. In honor of the day he called it Florida. He sailed along the coast, and landed here and there, but returned home at last, an old man still, having found neither youth nor glory.

Balbo′a crossed the Isthmus of Panama the same year, and from the summit of the mountains beheld a wide expanse of the Pacific Ocean, which he called the South Sea.[1] Wading into its waters with his naked sword in one hand and a Spanish banner in the other, he solemnly declared that the ocean, and all the shores which it might touch, belonged to the crown of Spain forever.

Narvaez (nar vah′ĕth) received a grant of Florida, and (1528) with 400 men attempted its conquest. Striking into the interior, they wandered about, lured on by the hope of finding gold. Wading through swamps, crossing deep rivers by swimming and by rafts, fighting the lurking Indians who incessantly harassed their path, and

[1] It was so called because at this point the ocean is south of the land.

nearly perishing with hunger, they reached at last the Gulf of Mexico. Hastily constructing some crazy boats, they sailed westward. After several weeks of peril and suffering, they were shipwrecked, and Narvaez was lost. Eight years afterwards four persons — the only survivors of this ill-fated expedition — reached the Spanish settlements on the Pacific coast of Mexico.

Ferdinand de Soto, undismayed by these failures, undertook anew the conquest of Florida. He set out with 600 men, amid the fluttering of banners, the flourish of trumpets, and the gleaming of helmet and lance. For month after month this procession of cavaliers, priests, soldiers, and Indian captives marched through the wilderness, wher-

DE SOTO FINDS THE MISSISSIPPI.

ever they thought gold might be found. They traversed what is now Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. In the third year of their wanderings (1541) they emerged upon the bank of the Mississippi River. After another year of

fruitless explorations, De Soto died.[1] The other adventurers were now anxious only to get home in safety. They constructed boats and descended the river, little over half of this gallant array finally reaching the settlements in Mexico.

Menendez (mā nĕn′dĕth), wiser than his predecessors, on landing (1565), forthwith laid the foundations of a colony. In honor of the day, he named it St. Augustine. This is the oldest town on the mainland of the United States.[2]

Explorations on the Pacific.— *California*, in the sixteenth century, was a general name applied to all the region northwest of Mexico. It is said to have originated in an old Spanish romance very popular in the time of Cortes, in which appeared a queen whose magnificent country bore this name. The Mexican Indians told the Spaniards that most of their gold and precious stones came from a country far to the northwest. Cortes, therefore, turned his attention in that direction, and sent out several expeditions to explore the Californias; but all these adventurers returned empty-handed.[3]

Coronä′do made the first extensive exploration of the southwestern part of our country. Starting from the Pacific coast of Mexico, he marched to the northeast as far as the present States of Kansas and Nebraska. He found the curious houses of the Pueblo Indians in New

[1] At the dead of night his followers sank his body in the river, and the sullen waters buried his hopes and his ambition. "He had crossed a large part of the continent," says Bancroft, "and found nothing so remarkable as his burial place."

[2] Many Spanish remains still exist. Among these is Fort Marion, once San Marco, which was founded in 1565 and finished in 1755. It is built of coquina (ko kē′nä) — a curious stone composed of small shells.

[3] Ships were also sent from Mexico across the Pacific, and one of these, driven out of its course, was wrecked on the Hawaiian Islands (1527). Later this group was discovered by a Spanish explorer (1555) and was marked on a few old Spanish charts; but the Spaniards did not take possession of the islands. The natives, several hundred thousand in number, were left to themselves for more than two centuries, until the islands were rediscovered by Captain Cook, the famous English navigator (1778).

Mexico, but of the gold that he sought he found none (1540–42).

Cabrillo (kah breel'yo) made the first voyage along what is now the California coast (1542); he died in San Diego (sahn de ā'go) harbor, but his pilot went many miles farther north.

Espejo (ĕs pā'ho) explored and named *New Mexico*, and (1582) founded Santa Fé (sahn tah fā'), which is the oldest town in the western United States. This was seventeen years after the settlement of St. Augustine.

Spanish Claims in North America in 1600.— Spain, at the close of the sixteenth century, had conquered and held

SPANISH EXPLORATIONS IN NORTH AMERICA TO 1600.

possession of the West Indies, Central America, and Mexico. Besides this Spanish explorers had traversed the whole of the southern portion of the United States from the Atlantic to the Pacific. All this part of our

vast territory, and more, they claimed by the rights of discovery and exploration, though their only settlements in it were St. Augustine in Florida and Santa Fé in New Mexico.

COLLATERAL READING

Fiske's *Discovery of America*, vol. ii. pp. 500–511.

FRENCH EXPLORATIONS

The French were eager to share in the profits which Spain was acquiring in the New World. Within seven years after the discovery of the continent the waters of Newfoundland were frequented by their fishermen.[1] For many years after Magellan's voyage, mariners of various nations tried to find a "northwest passage" to India through or around North America.[2]

Verrazano (-tsah'no), a native of Florence, Italy, was the first navigator sent by the French king to find the new way to the Indies. Sailing westward from Madeira (1524), he reached land near the present harbor of Wilmington, N. C. He coasted along the shores of Carolina and New Jersey, entered the harbors of New York and Newport, and returned with a glowing description of the lands he had found. He named the country New France.

Cartier (kar tyā') ascended the River St. Lawrence[3] (1535) to the Indian village of Hochelaga (ho she lah'gah), on the site of Montreal. The village was pleasantly situated at the foot of a lofty hill, which Cartier climbed.

[1] Cape Bret'on Island was named by the fishermen in remembrance of their home in Brittany, France.

[2] The routes by the Cape of Good Hope and by the Strait of Magellan were long and tedious. But it was at last found that the real northwest passage was still more difficult. It was first traversed in 1850–54, from Bering Sea to Baffin Bay. It is of no value to commerce.

[3] The name St. Lawrence was that of the day on which Cartier entered the gulf.

Stirred by the magnificent prospect, he named the place Mont Real, that is, Mount Royal.

Ribaut (re bō′) led out the first expedition (1562) under the auspices of Coligny (ko leen yee′).[1] The company landed at the site of Port Royal, S. C. So charmed were they that when volunteers were called for to hold the country for France, many eagerly came forward — more than could be allowed to stay. They erected a fort, which they named Carolina in honor of Charles IX.,[2] king of France. The fleet departed, leaving a little band of thirty alone on the continent. From the North Pole to Mexico, they were the only civilized men. Food became scarce. They tired of the eternal solitude of the wilderness, and finally built a rude ship and put to sea. Here a storm shattered their vessel. Famine overtook them, and, in their extremity, they killed and ate one of their number. A vessel at last hove in sight, and took them on board, only to carry them captives to England.[3] Thus perished the colony, but the name still survives.

Laudonnière (lo do ne ār′), two years after, built a fort, also called Carolina, on the St. Johns River in Florida. Soon the colonists were reduced to the verge of starvation.[4] They were on the point of leaving, when they were

[1] Coligny was an admiral of France, and a leader of the Hu'guenots, as the French Protestants were then called. He had conceived a plan for founding an empire in America. This would furnish an asylum for his Huguenot friends, and at the same time advance the glory of the French. Thus religion and patriotism combined to induce him to send out colonists to the New World.

[2] The Latin for Charles is *Carolus;* hence the name Carolina.

[3] The most feeble were landed in France. It is said that Queen Elizabeth first thought of colonizing the New World from conversing with the Huguenots sent to England.

[4] Their sufferings were horrible. Weak and emaciated, they fed themselves with roots, sorrel, pounded fish bones, and even roasted snakes. "Oftentimes," says Laudonnière, "our poor soldiers were constrained to give away the very shirts from their backs to get one fish. If at any time they showed unto the savages the excessive price which they took, these villains would answer them roughly: 'If thou make so great

reënforced by Ribaut. The French now seemed fairly fixed on the coast of Florida. The Spaniards, however, claimed the country. Menendez, about this time, had made a settlement in St. Augustine. Leading an expedition northward through the wilderness, in the midst of a fearful tempest, he attacked Fort Carolina and massacred almost the entire population. Thus ended the attempt to establish a French colony in the Southeast.

Champlain (sham plān'), at the beginning of the seventeenth century, crossed the Atlantic in two pygmy barks — one of twelve, the other of fifteen tons — and ascended the St. Lawrence on an exploring tour. At Hochelaga all was changed. The Indian town had vanished, and not a trace remained of the savage population which Cartier saw there seventy years before.[1] Champlain was overpowered by the charms of the New World, and longed to plant a French empire and the Catholic faith amid its savage wilds.

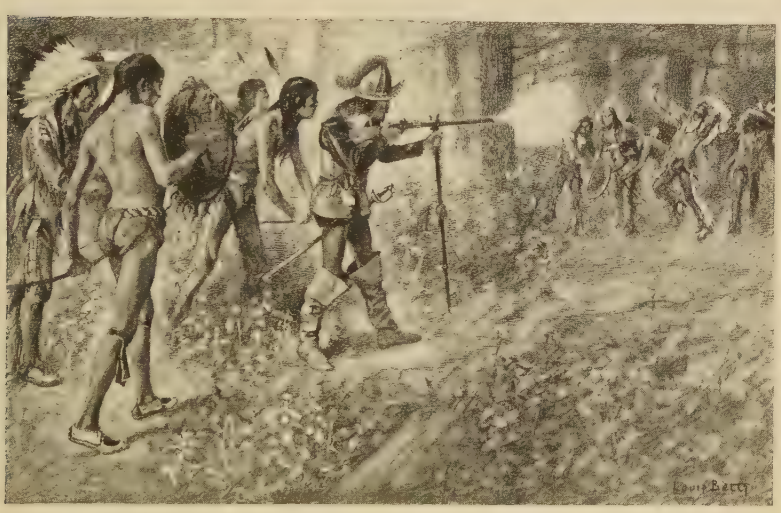
De Monts (mōN) received from the French king a grant of all the territory between the fortieth and forty-sixth parallels of latitude. This tract was termed Aca'dia, a name afterwards confined to New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. In 1605, with Champlain, he founded Port Royal (Nova Scotia), the first agricultural colony in America. Port Royal was soon abandoned, but a few years later, under other owners, it became a permanent settlement.

Champlain made a second voyage to America in 1608, and established a trading post at Quebec. This was the first permanent French settlement in Canada. The next summer, in his eager desire to explore the country, he joined a war party of the Hurons against the Iroquois, or Five Na-

account of thy merchandise, eat it, and we will eat our fish'; then fell they out a laughing, and mocked us with open throat."

[1] This fact illustrates the frequent and rapid changes which took place among the aboriginal tribes.

tions. On the banks of the beautiful lake which now bears his name, Champlain met and put to flight a band of Iro-



CHAMPLAIN FIGHTS THE IROQUOIS.

quois. The Iroquois never forgot nor forgave this defeat, and their enmity kept the French out of the present State of New York. Amid discouragements which would have overwhelmed a less determined spirit, Champlain firmly established the authority of France on the banks of the St. Lawrence. The "Father of New France," as he has been termed, reposes in the soil he won to civilization.

The Jesuit Missionaries.— The explorers of the Lake region and the Mississippi valley were mostly Jesuit[1] priests. The French names which they gave still linger throughout that region. Their hope was to convert the Indians to the Christian faith. They pushed their way

[1] The Society of Jesus is one of the famous religious orders of the Roman Catholic Church. It was founded by St. Ignatius Loyo'la in 1540, and at one time numbered over 20,000. The Jesuits are noted for the zeal, learning, and skill which they have displayed in missionary and other religious work in all parts of the world.

through the forest with unflagging energy. They paddled up the Ottawa River and carried their canoes across to the waters of Lake Huron. They traversed the Upper Lakes. In 1668 they founded the mission of Sault (soo) Sainte Marie, or St. Mary, the oldest European settlement in Michigan. Many of them were murdered by the savages; some were scalped; some were burned in resin fire; some were scalded with boiling water. Yet as soon as one fell out of the ranks another sprang forward to fill the post.

Father Marquette (mar ket′) was one of these patient, indefatigable pioneers of New France. Hearing from some

MARQUETTE'S VOYAGE.

wandering Indians of a great river which they termed the "Father of Waters," he determined to visit it. In company with the explorer Joliet (zho lyā′), he crossed Lake Michigan and Green Bay in a canoe, ascended Fox River, and

floated down the Wisconsin to the Mississippi (1673), and thence to the mouth of the Arkansas (ar'kan saw).[1]

La Salle (lah sahl') was educated as a Jesuit, but had left that order and had established a trading post at the outlet of Lake Ontario.[2] Inflamed with a desire to find the mouth of the Mississippi, he made his way down the river (1682) to the Gulf of Mexico. He named the country Louisiana, in honor of Louis XIV., king of France. Returning to France, he made ready to plant a colony near the mouth of the Mississippi; but when his ships arrived in the Gulf of Mexico they missed the mouth of the Mississippi and landed the colonists on the shore of Texas. La Salle was murdered[3] by some of his own men while on his way to the French settlements in the north. The Texas colony soon perished.

French Claims on North America in 1700.— Before the close of the seventeenth century, the French had explored the St. Lawrence basin, including the Great Lakes and their tributary streams; the Ohio and its chief branches; and the Mississippi from the Falls of St. Anthony to the Gulf, while they claimed the whole basin of that river, extending indefinitely westward. They had several settlements on the St. Lawrence, one at Biloxi on the Gulf, and

[1] Soon after his return, though in very poor health, he made a journey to an Indian village on the Illinois, to convert the natives there. On his way home again, while on Lake Michigan, he felt the approach of death, and with his two companions went ashore not far from the Marquette River. Patient and uncomplaining to the last, he died while at prayer. Years after, when the tempest raged and the Indian tossed on the angry waves, he would seek to still the storm by invoking the aid of the pious Marquette.

[2] This important post, with the lands adjacent, was granted him by the French king in 1675. Before this time he had made an expedition into the country south of the Great Lakes, where he discovered the Ohio River and descended it as far as the site of Louisville.

[3] The work begun by La Salle, however, was bravely carried on by other Frenchmen. Iberville (e bĕr veel') founded Biloxi, near the mouth of the Mississippi (1699), and his brother Bienville (be ăn veel') founded New Orleans (1718).

had planted here and there in the wilderness missions and rude forts or trading posts — the beginnings of civilization. In 1688 New France possessed a population of 11,000.

FRENCH EXPLORATIONS IN NORTH AMERICA TO 1700.

COLLATERAL READING

Fiske's *Discovery of America*, vol. ii. pp. 511–522; or Parkman's *La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West*, chap. xx.

ENGLISH EXPLORATIONS

We have seen how the Cabots, sailing under the English flag, discovered the American continent, exploring its coast from Labrador to Cape Cod. Though the English claimed the northern part of the continent by right of this discovery, yet for two generations they paid little attention to it. In Queen Elizabeth's time, however, maritime enterprise was awakened, and English sailors cruised on every sea.[1]

[1] Sir John Hawkins engaged in the slave trade, carrying cargoes of negroes from Africa to sell to the Spaniards in the West Indies. Soon, however, English sailors

Like the other navigators of the day, they were eager to discover the northwest passage to India.

Frob'isher made the first of these attempts to go north of America to Asia. Threading his perilous way among icebergs, he pushed into the little bay just north of Hudson Strait (1576), and on a later voyage entered Hudson Strait itself. Next, John Davis pushed farther northwest and entered Davis Strait (1585).

Sir Francis Drake was a famous sailor. In one of his expeditions on the Isthmus of Panama, he climbed to the top of a lofty tree, whence he saw the Pacific Ocean. Looking out on its broad expanse, he resolved to "sail an English ship on those seas." Returning to England, he equipped a small squadron. He sailed through the Strait of Magellan, and coasted along the Pacific shore to the southern part of Oregon. Having refitted his ship (1579), he sailed westward, and returned home by way of the Cape of Good Hope. He was thus the first Englishman to explore the Pacific coast, and to circumnavigate the globe.[1]

Sir Humphrey Gilbert was not a sailor, but he had

began to dispute with Spain the sovereignty of the sea, and English privateers — "sea dogs," as they were called — began to rob the Spanish treasure ships whenever they could. The greed of gold, the love of adventure, a chivalrous contempt of danger, and the bitter hatred then existing between Protestant England and Catholic Spain, combined to inspire the sea dogs to the most daring deeds.

[1] This voyage was in large part a plundering expedition. Along the coast of Chile and Peru, Drake robbed towns as well as ships, and he captured the great galleon that yearly sailed thence to Spain with precious stones, gold dust, and silver ingots. When he reached Plym'outh, England, after an absence of three years, his ship was laden with treasure to the amount of £800,000. The queen received a large share of the spoils, knighted the freebooter, wore his jewels in her crown, and ordered his ship, the *Golden Hind*, to be preserved in memory of her remarkable voyage. Open war having at last broken out between England and Spain, Drake, Cav'endish, and other freebooters went to the West Indies and the "Spanish Main," — the southern coast of the Caribbean Sea, — plundering and burning villages, and capturing Spanish treasure ships on their way home from the New World.

The English privateers, however, could fight for their country as well as for private gain, and Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher were in the very front of the little fleet that destroyed the "Invincible Arma'da" (1588) and broke the Spanish power.

studied the accounts of American discoveries, and concluded that, instead of random expeditions after gold and spices, companies should be sent out to form permanent settlements. His attempts to colonize the New World, however, ended in his own death. As he was sailing home (1583) in a bark of only ten tons' burden, in the midst of a fearful storm the light of his little vessel suddenly disappeared. Neither ship nor crew was ever seen again.

RALEIGH AND THE QUEEN.

Sir Walter Raleigh [1] (raw'lĭ), a half-brother of Gilbert, shared his views of American colonization. He easily

[1] Raleigh was not only a man of dauntless courage, but he also added to a handsome person much learning and many accomplishments. Meeting Queen Elizabeth one day while she was walking, he spread his mantle over a wet place in her path. She was so pleased with his gallantry that she admitted him to court, and he continued a favorite during her entire lifetime. After her death he was accused by James I. of treason, was imprisoned for many years, and was finally executed. On the scaffold he asked for the ax, and, feeling the edge, observed with a smile, "This is a sharp medicine, but a sound cure for all diseases." Then composedly laying his head on the block, and moving his lips as in prayer, he gave the signal for the fatal blow.

obtained from Queen Elizabeth a patent[1] of any remote lands not inhabited by Christians, which he might discover within six years. In 1584 he sent an expedition which explored the coast of what is now North Carolina. This whole region was named Virginia in honor of Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen.

Raleigh's First Attempt to Plant a Colony was on Roanoke Island (map, p. 52). The settlers made no endeavor to cultivate the soil, but spent their time in hunting for gold and pearls. At last they were nearly starved, when Drake, happening to stop there on one of his voyages, took pity on them and carried them home.

They had lived long enough in America to learn the use of tobacco from the Indians. This they introduced into England. The custom of "drinking tobacco," as it was called, soon became the fashion.[2]

Raleigh's Second Attempt.— Raleigh, undiscouraged by this failure, still clung to his colonizing scheme. The next time, he sent out families instead of single men. A granddaughter of John White, the governor of the colony, was born soon after they reached Roanoke Island; she was the first English child born in America (1587). The governor, on returning to England to secure supplies, found the public attention absorbed by the threatened attack of the Spanish Armada. It was four years before he was able to come back. Meanwhile his family, and the colony he had left alone in the wilderness, had perished: how, we do not know.

Raleigh had now spent about $200,000, an immense sum

[1] A patent was a formal grant of land, with the right to plant colonies on it.

[2] An amusing story is told of Raleigh while he was learning to smoke. One morning a servant, on entering the room with a cup of ale for his master, saw a cloud of smoke issuing from Raleigh's mouth. Frantically dashing the liquor in his master's face, he rushed downstairs, imploring help lest Sir Walter should be burned to ashes!

for that day, on this American colony; and, disheartened, he transferred his patent to other parties.

Trading Voyages.— Fortunately for American interests, fishing and trading ventures were more profitable than colonizing ones. English vessels frequented the Banks of Newfoundland, and, probably, occasionally visited Virginia. Bartholomew Gosnold,[1] a master of a small bark, discovered (1602) and named Cape Cod and Marthas Vineyard. Loading his vessel with sassafras root, which was then highly esteemed as a medicine, he returned home to publish most favorable reports of the region. Some English merchants accordingly sent out the next year two vessels under Captain Pring. He discovered several harbors in Maine, and brought back cargoes of furs and sassafras.

As the result of these various explorations, many felt an earnest desire to colonize the New World. James I. accordingly granted two companies permission to found colonies in the vast territory of Virginia, as it was called.

The South Virginia Company, called the London Company because its principal men resided at London, was to have a block of land 100 miles square somewhere on the coast between the thirty-fourth and forty-first degrees of latitude. This company sent out a colony under Captain Newport. He made at Jamestown,[2] in 1607, the

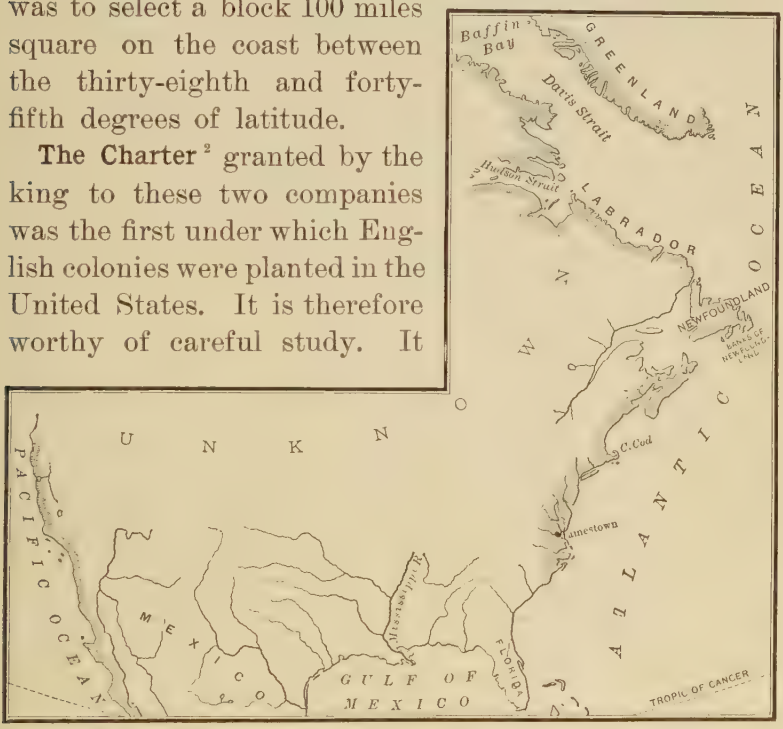
[1] The English ships were accustomed to steer southward as far as the Canary Islands; then they followed the track of Columbus to the West Indies, and thence past the coast of Florida northward to the point they wished to reach. Navigators knew this was a roundabout way, but they were afraid to try the northern route straight across the Atlantic. Gosnold made the voyage *directly* from England to Massachusetts, thus shortening the route 3000 miles. This gave a great impulse to colonization, since it was, in effect, bringing America 3000 miles nearer England.

[2] The river was called James, and the town Jamestown, in honor of the king of England. The headlands at the mouth of the Chesapeake received the names of Cape Henry and Cape Charles from the king's sons, and the deep water for anchorage, "which put the emigrants in good comfort," gave the name Point Comfort.

first permanent English settlement in the United States[1] (see map, p. 52).

The North Virginia Company, called the Plymouth Company because its principal men resided at Plymouth, was to select a block 100 miles square on the coast between the thirty-eighth and forty-fifth degrees of latitude.

The Charter[2] granted by the king to these two companies was the first under which English colonies were planted in the United States. It is therefore worthy of careful study. It



ENGLISH EXPLORATIONS IN NORTH AMERICA TO 1607.

contained no idea of self-government. The people were not to have the election of an officer. The king was to

[1] About eighty years before this the Spaniards had tried to establish a colony in the same locality as Jamestown, but had failed. The attempt was made under De Ayllon (da īl yōn'), who led thither 600 colonists, including some negro slaves who were to do the hard labor of the colony. But De Ayllon died of a fever, dissensions arose among his successors, many colonists perished on account of sickness, exposure, and Indian attacks, and soon the survivors abandoned the country.

[2] A charter was a document which conferred the title to certain land, and, not unlike a constitution, defined the form of government and secured to the people certain rights and privileges.

appoint a council to live in each colony and have control of its local affairs, and also a council to reside in London and have general control of both colonies. The king issued a long list of instructions to these councils. He ordered that the Church of England should be maintained in the colony, and that all the proceeds of the colony's industry and commerce should go into a common fund, no person being allowed the fruit of his individual labor.

COLLATERAL READING

Fiske's *Old Virginia and her Neighbours*, vol. i. pp. 19, 20, 26–35, 38–40

DUTCH EXPLORATIONS

During all this time the Dutch manifested no interest in the New World. In the beginning of the seventeenth century, however, Captain Henry Hudson, an English navigator in the Dutch service, entered Delaware Bay and the harbor of New York. Hoping to reach the Pacific Ocean, he ascended the noble river which bears his name (1609).[1]

On this discovery the Dutch based their claim to the region extending from the Delaware River to Cape Cod. They gave to it the name of New Netherland.

CONFLICTING CLAIMS

The Permanent Settlements.— At the close of the sixteenth century neither the English nor the French had

[1] It is now believed that Verrazano (p. 34) was the true discoverer of this stream, over three quarters of a century before. Hudson later entered the English service, and sailed into Hudson Strait and Hudson Bay during an attempt to find the northwest passage. His explorations helped to make good the English claim to all the land draining into these waters. His crew mutinied, set him and his son adrift in a rowboat, and left them to perish in the bay which bears his name.

planted a single enduring colony in America, and the only permanent settlements north of the Gulf of Mexico were those of the Spaniards at St. Augustine and Santa Fé. In the beginning of the seventeenth century permanent settlements multiplied. Settlements were made by

The French at Port Royal (Nova Scotia), in 1605;
The English at Jamestown, in 1607;
The French at Quebec, in 1608;
The Dutch at New Amsterdam (New York), in 1613;[1]
The English at Plymouth, in 1620.

The Conflicting Claims.— With the exception of the southeastern and southwestern parts of the United States, which were practically conceded to Spain, our whole country was claimed by each of the three nations, Spanish, French, and English;[2] and part of it also by the Dutch. All four nations succeeded in taking possession of parts of the country, and therefore the boundaries of the different colonies were in dispute. While the first few settlements were separated by hundreds of miles of savage forests, this was of little account. But as the settlements increased, the conflicting claims became a source of constant strife and were decided finally by the sword.

[1] "Here lay the shaggy continent from Florida to the Pole, outstretched in savage slumber along the sea. On the bank of the James River was a nest of woe-begone Englishmen, a handful of fur traders at the mouth of the Hudson, and a few shivering Frenchmen among the snowdrifts of Acadia; while, deep within the wild monotony of desolation, on the icy verge of the great northern river, Champlain upheld the banner of France over the rock of Quebec. These were the advance guard of civilization, the messengers of promise to a desert continent. Yet, not content with inevitable woes, they were rent by petty jealousies and miserable quarrels, while each little fragment of rival nationalities, just able to keep up its own wretched existence on a few square miles, begrudged to all the rest the smallest share in a domain which all the nations of Europe could not have sufficed to fill."— Parkman.

[2] It is noticeable that the English grants extended westward to the Pacific Ocean; the French, southward from the St. Lawrence to the Gulf; and the Spanish, northward to the Arctic Ocean. None of the European nations knew how immense was the territory it was granting.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

EPOCH I: EARLY DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS.

1. Geographical Knowledge in the Fifteenth Century.
2. Columbus.
   1. His Views.
   2. At Court of Portugal.
   3. At Court of Spain.
   4. His Success.
   5. His Equipment.
   6. His Voyage.
   7. His Discoveries.
   8. His Reception Home.
   9. Subsequent Voyages.
   10. His Mistake.
3. How America was Named.
4. The Cabots.
   1. John Cabot.
   2. Sebastian Cabot.
5. Spanish Explorations.
   1. The Feeling in Spain.
   2. Ponce de Leon.
   3. Balboa.
   4. Narvaez.
   5. Ferdinand de Soto.
   6. Menendez.
   7. Explorations on Pacific.
      - *a. California.*
      - *b. Coronado.*
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   8. Spanish Claims in 1600.
6. French Explorations.
   1. Newfoundland Fisheries.
   2. Verrazano.
   3. Cartier.
   4. Ribaut.
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   6. Champlain.
      - *a. Visit to Hochelaga.*
      - *b. Founds Quebec.*
      - *c. Fights Iroquois.*
   7. De Monts and Port Royal.
   8. Jesuit Missionaries.
      - *a. Their zeal.*
      - *b. Marquette.*
   9. La Salle.
   10. French Claims in 1700.
7. English Explorations.
   1. English Claim and Maritime Zeal.
   2. Frobisher and Davis.
   3. Francis Drake.
   4. Humphrey Gilbert.
   5. Raleigh.
      - *a. Tries to plant Colony.*
      - *b. Second attempt.*
   6. Trading Voyages.
   7. Companies formed.
      - *a. London Co.*
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8. Dutch Explorations.
   1. Henry Hudson.
   2. Dutch Claim.
9. Conflicting Claims.
   1. Permanent Settlements at the End of the Sixteenth Century and the Beginning of the Seventeenth Century.
   2. Claims of the Four Nations.
      - *a. The Spanish.*
      - *b. The French.*
      - *c. The English.*
      - *d. The Dutch.*
   3. Result of these Conflicting Claims.

EPOCH II.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH COLONIES

This epoch traces the early history of the thirteen English colonies—Virginia, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. The Cavaliers land in Virginia and the Puritans in Massachusetts. Immigration increases, and the settlements multiply along the whole coast. The country is settled mainly by immigrants from Great Britain; for most of the colonies are founded as English dependencies, and the others soon become so. The colonies, however, have little history in common. Each by itself struggles with the wilderness, contends with the Indian, and develops the principles of liberty.

I. VIRGINIA

The Character of the first Jamestown colonists was poorly adapted to endure the hardships incident to life in a new country. The settlers—about 100 in number—were mostly men of gentle birth, unused to labor. They had no families, and came out in search of wealth and adventure, expecting, when rich, to return to England. The climate was unhealthful, and before the first autumn half of them had perished, including Gosnold, one of their leaders.

John Smith [1] saved the colony from ruin. First as a member of the council, and afterwards as president, he rendered invaluable service. He persuaded the settlers to build log huts for the winter. He made long voyages, carefully exploring Chesapeake Bay, securing the friendship of the Indians, and bringing back boatloads of supplies. He trained the tender gentlemen till they learned how to swing the ax in the forest. He declared that "he who would not work might not eat." He taught them that industry and self-reliance are the surest guarantees to fortune.

SMITH SHOWS HIS COMPASS.

Smith's Adventures were of the most romantic character.

[1] Captain John Smith was born to adventure. While yet a boy he left his home in Lincolnshire, England, to engage in Holland wars. Later we hear of him on his way to fight the Turks. In France he is robbed, and escapes death from want only by begging alms. At sea a fearful storm arises; he, being a heretic, is deemed the cause, and is thrown overboard, but he swims to land. In the East a famous Mussulman wishes to fight some Christian knight "to please the ladies"; Smith offers himself, and slays three champions in succession! Taken prisoner in battle and sold as a slave, his head is shaved and his neck bound with an iron ring; he kills his master, arrays himself in the dead man's garments, mounts a horse, and spurs his way to a Russian camp. Having returned to England, he embarks for the New World. On the voyage he excites the jealousy of his fellows, and is landed in chains, but his worth becomes so apparent that he is finally made president of the colony. These and many other wonderful exploits he tells in a book published after his return to England. Many historians discredit them. However, his services were of unquestionable value to Virginia, and his disinterestedness appears from the fact that he never received a foot of land in the colony his wisdom had saved.

In one of his expeditions up the Chickahom'iny[1] he was taken prisoner by the Indians. With singular coolness, he immediately tried to interest his captors by explaining the use of his pocket compass, and the motions of the moon and stars. At last they allowed him to write a letter to Jamestown. When they found that this informed his friends of his misfortune, they were filled with astonishment. They could not understand by what magical art he made a few marks on paper express his thoughts. They considered him a being of a superior order, and treated him with the utmost respect. He was carried to the great chief, the Powhatan', by whom he was condemned to die. His head was laid on a stone, and the huge war-club of the Indian executioner was raised to strike the fatal blow. Suddenly Pocahon'tas, the young daughter of the chief, who had already become attached to the prisoner, threw herself upon his neck and pleaded for his pardon.[2] The favorite of the tribe was given her desire.

1 This was undertaken by the express order of the company to seek a passage to the Pacific Ocean and thus to India. Captain Newport, before his return to England, made a trip up the James River for the same purpose; and Henry Hudson was searching for a passage to India when he ascended Delaware Bay and Hudson River. The ignorance of that age regarding the shape and extent of North America is shown by this map, the shaded parts of which represent a map made for Sir Philip Sidney in 1582. The map also illustrates why the existence of a short strait between the Atlantic and Pacific in Virginia was thought possible.

2 This incident has been discredited by many historians because Smith did not mention it in his first account (1608) of his adventures, but describes it in the second one, published sixteen years later. But his first account is known to be incomplete, and this conduct of Pocahontas was entirely in accord with Indian usage.

Smith was sent home with promises of friendship. His little protector was often thereafter to be seen going to Jamestown with baskets of corn for the white men.

A Second Charter (1609) was soon obtained by the London Company. This vested the local authority in a governor instead of a local council. The colonists were not consulted with regard to the change, nor did the charter guarantee to them any rights. The new charter greatly enlarged the boundaries of the colony, which was now to extend along the coast 200 miles each way from Point Comfort, and thence across the continent "from sea to sea, west and northwest."[1]

VIRGINIA BY THE CHARTER OF 1609.

The "Starving Time."—Many more colonists had arrived from England, but now, unfortunately, Smith was disabled by a severe wound and compelled to return. His influence being removed, the settlers became a prey to disease and famine. Some were killed by the Indians. Some, in their despair, seized a boat and became pirates. The winter of 1609–10 was long known as the "Starving Time." In six months the colonists were reduced from 490 to 60. At last they determined to flee from the wretched place. "None dropped a tear, for none had

[1] Probably from the Atlantic to the Sea of Verrazano was meant (see note, p. 51).

enjoyed one day of happiness." The next morning, as they slowly moved down with the tide, to their great joy they met their new governor, Lord Delaware, with abundant supplies and a company of immigrants. All returned to the homes they had just deserted, and Jamestown colony was once more saved from ruin.

The Third Charter.—Up to this time the colony had proved a failure and was publicly ridiculed in London. To quiet the outcry, the charter was changed (1612). The management of the colony had previously been in the hands of the council in London; but now the stockholders were given power to meet frequently and regulate the affairs of the company themselves.

The Marriage of Pocahontas (1614).—The little Indian girl had now grown to womanhood. John Rolfe, a young English planter, had won her love and wished to marry her. In the little church at Jamestown, rough almost as an Indian's wigwam, she received Christian baptism, and, in broken English, repeated the marriage vows according to the service of the Church of England.[1]

First Colonial Assembly.—Governor Yeardley believed that the colonists should have "a hande in the governing of themselves." In obedience to the company's instructions, he called at Jamestown, July 30, 1619, the first legislative body that ever assembled in America. It consisted of the governor, the council, and two deputies, or "burgesses," as they were called, chosen from each of the eleven settlements, or "boroughs," into which Virginia was then divided. The privilege of self-government was

[1] Two years after, she visited London with her husband. The childlike simplicity and winning grace of Lady Rebecca, as she was called, attracted universal admiration. She was introduced at court and received every mark of attention. As she was about to return to her native land with her husband and infant son, she suddenly died. Her son became a man of distinction. Many of the leading families of Virginia have been proud to say that the blood of Pocahontas coursed through their veins.

afterwards (1621) embodied in a written constitution — the first of the kind in America — granted by the company under the leadership of Sir Edwin Sandys. The laws passed by the colonial assembly had to be ratified by the company in London; but the orders from London were not binding unless ratified by the colonial assembly. A measure of freedom was thus granted the colony, and Jamestown became a nursery of liberty.

Prosperity of the Colony.— The old famine troubles had now all passed. The attempt to work in common had been given up, and each man tilled his own land and

THE LANDING OF THE WOMEN.

received the profits. Tobacco was the chief article of export; its sale made the colony prosperous. The colonists were so eager in its cultivation that at one time they planted it even in the streets of Jamestown. Gold

hunting had ceased,[1] and many of the former servants of the company owned plantations. Settlements lined both banks of the James for 140 miles. Best of all, young women of good character were brought over by the company and were sold as wives to the settlers. The price at first was fixed at the cost of the passage,— 120 pounds of tobacco,— but wives were in such demand that it soon went up to 150 pounds. Domestic ties were formed. The colonists, having homes, now became Virginians. All freemen had the right to vote, and Virginia became almost an independent republic. The population was about 4000 (1622).

Slavery Introduced.— In 1619 the captain of a Dutch trading vessel sold to the colonists twenty negroes.[2] They were employed in cultivating tobacco. As their labor was found profitable, large numbers were afterwards imported. For a time, however, the negroes were less numerous than white servants, who were sold for a term of years, either as a punishment or (with the servant's consent) as a means of paying for the passage across the sea. Sometimes children and even adults were kidnaped, shipped to America, and sold in this way.

Indian Troubles.— After the death of the Powhatan, the firm friend of the English, the Indians secretly formed a plan for the extermination of the colony. At a preconcerted moment they attacked the colonists (March 22, 1622) on all their widely scattered plantations. About 350 men, women, and children fell in one day. Fortunately,

[1] In the early life of this colony, particles of mica glittering in a brook were mistaken for gold dust. Newport carried to England a shipload of the worthless stuff. Smith remonstrated in vain against this folly.

[2] From this circumstance, small as it seemed at the time, the most momentous consequences ensued — consequences that, long after, rent the republic with strife and moistened its soil with blood.

a converted Indian had informed a friend whom he wished to save, and thus Jamestown and the settlements near by were prepared. A merciless war ensued, during which the Indians were so severely punished that they remained quiet for twenty years. Then came a massacre of 300 settlers (1644), followed by a short war which ended in the natives being expelled from the region.

Virginia a Royal Province.— The majority of the stockholders had gladly granted to the infant colony those rights for which they themselves were struggling at home. King James, becoming jealous of the company because of its republican sentiments, took away the charter (1624) and made Virginia a royal province; that is, the company was deprived of all control over the colony, which now passed under the immediate control of the king. Henceforth the king appointed the governor and council, though the colony still retained its assembly.

During and after the struggle between Charles I. and the Puritans in England, many of the Royalists or Cavaliers emigrated to Virginia. Yet the colony promptly surrendered to the officers sent over by the victorious Commonwealth, and during this period it enjoyed increased freedom of self-government.

A Period of Oppression.— After the Restoration of Charles II. (1660) the English Parliament enforced the Navigation Act, which ordered that the commerce of the colony should be carried on only in English vessels, and that its tobacco should be shipped only to England. Besides this, the colonial assembly was composed mainly of Royalists, who levied exorbitant taxes, refused to go out of office when their term had expired, fixed their salary at a high figure, restricted the right of voting to "freeholders and housekeepers," and imposed on Quakers a monthly

fine of one hundred dollars for absence from worship in the English Church. Two parties gradually sprang up in the colony: one, the aristocratic party, was composed of the rich planters and the officeholders; the other comprised the liberty-loving portion of the people, who felt themselves deprived of their rights.

Bacon's Rebellion.— These difficulties came to a crisis in 1676 — a century before Independence Day — when Governor Berkeley failed to provide for the defense of the settlements against the Indians. At this juncture Nathaniel Bacon, a patriotic young man, rallied a company, defeated the Indians, and then turned to meet the governor, who had denounced him as a traitor. During the contest which followed, Berkeley was driven out of Jamestown and the village itself was burned.[1] In the midst of this success Bacon died. No leader could be found worthy to take his place, and the people dispersed. Berkeley revenged himself with terrible severity. On hearing of the facts, Charles II. impatiently declared: "He has taken more lives in that naked country than I did for the murder of my father!"

COLLATERAL READINGS

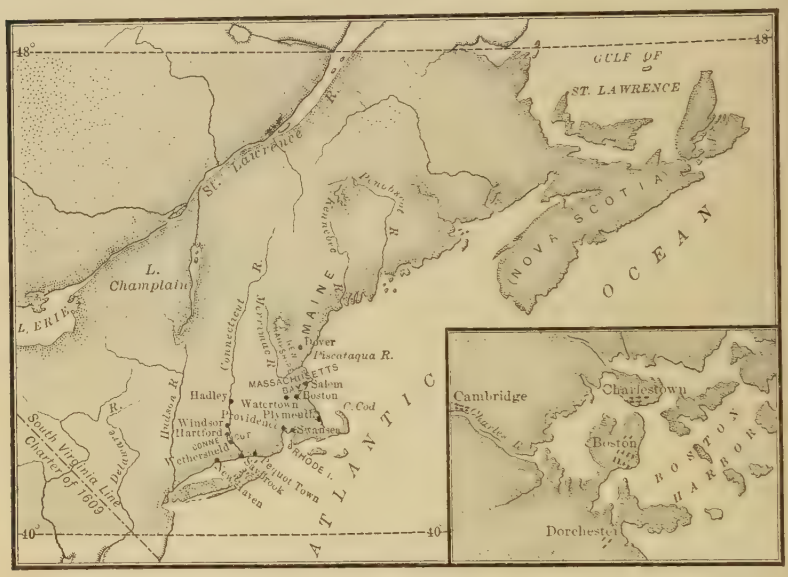
Smith and Pocahontas.—Fiske's *Old Virginia*, vol. i. pp. 80–90, 109–111.
Virginia in 1624.—Fiske's *Old Virginia*, vol. i. pp. 223–231, 243–250.

II. MASSACHUSETTS

The Plymouth Company (p. 45) failed in an attempt to establish a settlement in North Virginia (1607). A few years later Captain John Smith examined the coast from

[1] Going up the James River, just before reaching City Point, one sees near the right-hand bank the ruins of an old church. The crumbling tower, with its arched doorways, is almost hidden by the profusion of shrubbery which surrounds it. And this, with a few weather-beaten tombstones near by, is all that remains of the village of Jamestown.

the Penobscot to Cape Cod, drew a map of it, and called the country New England. The company, stirred to action by his glowing accounts, obtained a new patent (1620) under the name of the Council for New England. This authorized them to make settlements and carry on trade through a region reaching from 40° to 48° north lati-



NEW ENGLAND BY THE PATENT OF 1620. VICINITY OF BOSTON.

tude, and westward from sea to sea. As we shall see, however, New England was first settled without consent of king or council.

1. PLYMOUTH COLONY

Settlement.— *Landing of the Pilgrims.*[1] — One stormy day in the autumn of 1620, the *Mayflower*, with a band of a hundred and two Pilgrims, men, women, and children,

[1] They were called Pilgrims because of their wanderings. About seventy years before this time the state religion of England had been changed from Catholic to Protestant; but a large number of the clergy and people were dissatisfied with what

came to anchor in Cape Cod harbor. The little company, gathering in the cabin, drew up a compact, in which they

THE MAYFLOWER COMPACT.

they thought to be a halfway change on the part of the new church, and called for a more complete purification from old observances and doctrines. For this they were called Puritans. They still believed in a state church, but wanted the government to make certain changes in it. The government not only refused, but punished the Puritan clergy for not using the prescribed form of worship. This led some of them to question the authority of the government in religious matters. They came to believe that any body of Christians might declare itself a church, choose its own officers, and be independent of all external authority. Those who formed such local churches separated themselves from the Church of England, and hence were called Separatists. One church of Separatists was at Scrooby, in the east of England. Not being allowed to worship in peace, they fled to Holland (1608). But they were unwilling to have their children grow up as Dutchmen, and longed for an English land where they might worship God in their own way. America offered such a home. They came, resolved to brave every danger, trusting to God to shape their destinies.

agreed to enact just and equal laws, which all should obey. One of their exploring parties landed at Plymouth,[1] as it was called on Smith's chart, December 21.[2] Finding the location suitable for a settlement, the men all came ashore and, amid a storm of snow and sleet, began building rude log houses.

The Pilgrims had intended to settle in what is now New Jersey, in the territory controlled by the London Company, from which they had procured a patent. Stormy weather prevented the *Mayflower* from going there, and the Pilgrims settled at Plymouth without waiting for permission to do so. Later the Council for New England gave them several grants of land.

The Character of the Pilgrims was well suited to the rugged, stormy land which they sought to subdue. They had come into the wilderness with their families in search of a home where they could educate their children and worship God as they pleased. They were earnest, sober-minded men, actuated in all things by deep religious principle, and never disloyal to their convictions of duty.

Their Sufferings during the winter were severe. At one time there were only seven well persons to take care of the sick. Half of the little band died. Yet when spring came, and the *Mayflower* set sail for England, not one of the Pilgrims thought of returning with her.

[1] The little shallop sent out to reconnoiter before landing lost, in a furious storm, its rudder, mast, and sail. Late at night the party sought shelter under the lee of a small island. Every hour was precious, as the season was late and their companions in the *Mayflower* were waiting their return; but "being ye last day of ye week, they prepared there to keepe ye Sabbath." No wonder that the influence of such a people has been felt throughout the country, and that "Forefathers' Rock," on which they first stepped, is yet held in grateful remembrance.

[2] This was December 11, Old Style. In 1752 eleven days were added to correct an increasing error in the calendar, so Forefathers' Day is observed on the 22d. But in 1620 the error in the calendar was only ten days instead of eleven, and the correct date is the 21st, New Style. (Steele's "Popular Astronomy," p. 285.)

The Indians, fortunately, did not disturb them. A pestilence had destroyed the tribe inhabiting the place where they landed. They were startled, however, one day in early spring, by a voice in their village crying in broken English, "Welcome!" It was the salutation of Sam'oset, an Indian, whose chief, Mas'sasoit, soon after visited them. The treaty then made lasted for fifty years. Canon'icus, a Narragansett chief, once sent a bundle of arrows, wrapped in a rattlesnake skin, as a token of defiance. Governor Bradford returned the skin filled with powder and shot. This significant hint was effectual.[1]

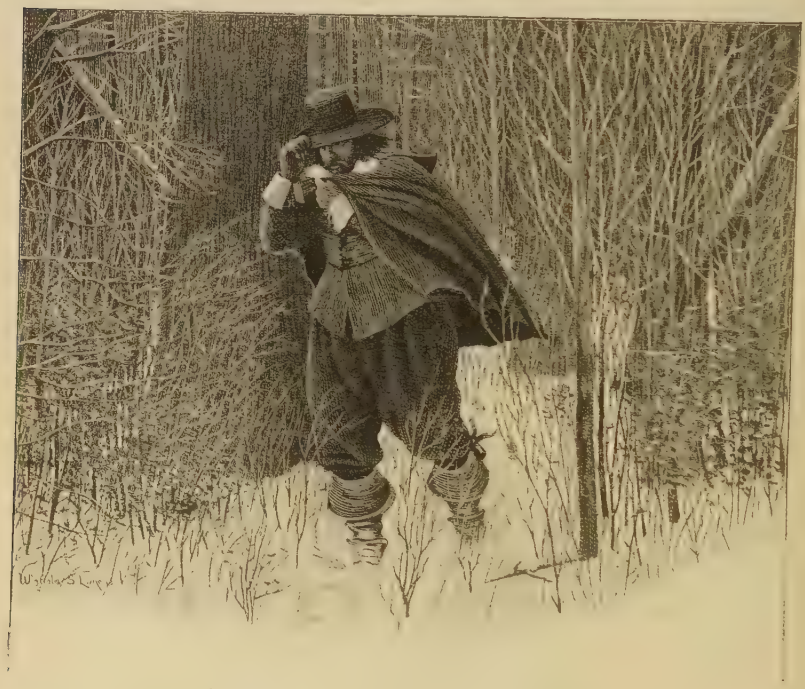
The Progress of the Colony was at first slow. The settlers' harvests were insufficient to feed themselves and the newcomers. During the "famine of 1623" the best dish they could set before their friends was a bit of fish and a cup of water. After four years they numbered only 184. The plan of working in common having failed here as at Jamestown, land was assigned to each settler. Abundance ensued. The colony was never organized by royal charter, but the king left them in peace to elect their own governor and make their own laws. In 1692 Plymouth was united with Massachusetts Bay Colony, of which it thereafter formed a part.

2. MASSACHUSETTS BAY COLONY

Settlement.—John Endicott and five associates obtained (1628) from the Council for New England a grant of land between and including the mouths of the Merrimac and Charles rivers, and thence west across the continent from sea to sea. Having secured from King Charles I.

[1] Another reason why Plymouth had no disastrous conflict with Indians was the ability and bravery of Miles Standish, who acted as military head of the little colony. He was one of the mainstays of the colony, though he was not of the same religious faith as the Pilgrims.

a charter giving authority to make laws and govern the territory, the company afterwards transferred all its rights to the colony. This was a popular measure, and many prominent Puritan families flocked to the land of liberty. Some, under the leadership of Endicott, settled at Salem and Charlestown; some established colonies at Dorchester



ROGER WILLIAMS FLEES TO THE FOREST.

and Watertown; and some, under the new governor, Winthrop, founded Boston (1630).

Religious Disturbances.— The people of Massachusetts Bay, while in England, were Puritans, but not Separatists. Having come to America to establish a Puritan church, they were unwilling to receive persons holding opinions differing from their own, lest their purpose should be

defeated. They accordingly sent back to England those who persisted in using the forms of the Established Church, and allowed only members of their own church to vote in civil affairs.

Roger Williams, an eloquent and pious young minister, taught that each person should think for himself in all religious matters, and be responsible to his own conscience alone. He declared that the magistrates had, therefore, no right to punish blasphemy, perjury, or Sabbath-breaking. The clergy and magistrates were alarmed at what they considered a doctrine dangerous to the peace of the colony, and he was ordered (1636) to be sent to England. It was in the depth of winter, yet he fled to the forest, and found refuge among the Indians. Canonicus, the Narragansett sachem, gave him land to found a settlement, which he gratefully named Providence.

Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, during the same year, aroused a violent and bitter controversy. She claimed to be favored with special revelations of God's will. These she expounded to crowded congregations of women, greatly to the scandal of many Puritans. Finally she also was banished.

The Quakers, about twenty years after these summary measures, created fresh trouble by their peculiar views. They were fined, whipped, imprisoned, and sent out of the colony; yet they as constantly returned, glorying in their sufferings. At last four were executed. The people beginning to sympathize with them as martyrs, the persecution gradually relaxed.

A Union of the Colonies of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, New Haven, and Connecticut (see p. 69) was formed (1643) under the title of the United Colonies of New England. This famous league lasted more than forty years. The

object was protection against the Indians and against the encroachments of the Dutch and French settlers.

King Philip's War.—During the life of Massasoit, Plymouth enjoyed peace with the Indians, as did Jamestown during the life of the Powhatan. After Massasoit's death, his son Philip brooded with a jealous eye over the encroachments of the whites. With profound sagacity he planned a confederation of the Indian tribes against the intruders. The first blow fell on the people of Swansea, as they were quietly going home from church on Sunday, July 4, 1675. The settlers flew to arms, but Philip escaped, and soon excited the savages to fall upon the settlements in the Connecticut valley. The colonists fortified their houses with palisades, carried their arms with them into the fields when at work, and stacked them at the door when at church. The Narragansett Indians favored Philip, and seemed on the point of joining his alliance. They had gathered their winter's provisions, and fortified themselves in the midst of an almost inaccessible swamp. Fifteen hundred of the colonists accordingly attacked and destroyed this stronghold. In the spring the war broke out anew along a frontier of three hundred miles, and to within twenty miles of Boston. Nowhere fighting in the open field, but by ambuscade and skulking, the Indians kept the whole country in terror. Driven to desperation by their atrocities, the settlers hunted down the savages like wild beasts. Philip was chased from one hiding place to another. His family being captured at last, he fled, broken-hearted, to his old home on Mount Hope, Rhode Island, where he was shot by a faithless Indian.

New England a Royal Province.—The Navigation Act (p. 56), which we have seen so unpopular in Virginia, was exceedingly oppressive in Massachusetts, which had a

thriving commerce. In spite of the decree, the colony opened a trade with the West Indies. The Royalists in England determined that this bold republican spirit should be quelled. The colony, stoutly insisting upon its rights under the charter, resisted the commissioners sent over to enforce the Navigation Act and the authority of the king; whereupon the charter was annulled and Massachusetts was made a royal province (1684). Charles II. died before his plan was completed, but his successor, James II., sent over Sir Edmund Andros as first royal governor of all New England (1686). Governor Andros carried things with a high hand. The New England colonies endured his oppression for three years, when, learning that his royal master was dethroned,[1] the people rose against their petty tyrant and put him in jail. With true Puritan sobriety, they then quietly resumed their old forms of government. In Massachusetts, however, this lasted for only three years, when Sir William Phips came as royal governor over a province embracing Massachusetts, Plymouth, Maine, and Nova Scotia. From this time till the Revolution the enlarged colony of Massachusetts Bay was governed under a new charter; but as its governor was appointed by the king, it was in some respects a royal province. There were many disputes between the governor and the colonial assembly, or "general court," as it was called, over the rights and powers claimed by each.

Salem Witchcraft (1692).—A strange delusion known as the Salem witchcraft[2] produced an intense excitement.

[1] The "English Revolution of 1688" resulted in the deposition of James II., the Stuart king, and the enthronement of William and Mary.

[2] A belief in witchcraft was at that time universal. Sir Matthew Hale, one of the most enlightened judges of England, repeatedly tried and condemned persons accused of witchcraft. Blackstone himself, at a later day, declared that to deny witchcraft

The children of a minister near Salem performed pranks which could be explained only by supposing that they were under Satanic influence. Every effort was made to discover who had bewitched them. An Indian servant was flogged until she admitted herself to be guilty. Soon others were affected, and the terrible mania spread rapidly. Committees of examination were appointed and courts of trial were convened. The most improbable stories were credited. To express a doubt of witchcraft was to indicate one's own alliance with the evil spirit. Persons of the highest respectability — clergymen, magistrates, and even the governor's wife — were implicated. At last, after fifty-five persons had been tortured and twenty hanged, the people awoke to their folly, and the persecution ceased.

III. MAINE AND NEW HAMPSHIRE

Maine and New Hampshire were so intimately associated with Massachusetts that they have almost a common history. Gorges (gôr′jĕz) and Mason, about two years after the landing of the Pilgrims, obtained from the Council for New England the grant of a large tract of land which lay between the Merrimac and Kennebec rivers. They established some small fishing stations at Dover and near Portsmouth, at the mouth of the Piscat′aqua River. This patent being afterwards dissolved, Mason took the country lying west of the Piscataqua, and named it New Hampshire; Gorges took that lying east, and called it the prov-

was to deny revelation. Cotton Mather, the most prominent minister of the colony, was active in the rooting out of this supposed crime. He published a book full of the most ridiculous witch stories. One judge who engaged in this persecution was afterwards so deeply penitent that he observed a day of fasting in each year, and on the day of general fast rose in his place in the Old South Church at Boston, and in the presence of the congregation handed to the pulpit a written confession acknowledging his error and praying for forgiveness.

ince of Maine.[1] Massachusetts, however, claimed this territory, and, to secure it, paid about six thousand dollars to the heirs of Gorges. Maine was not separated from Massachusetts till 1820. The feeble settlements of New Hampshire also placed themselves under the protection of Massachusetts. "Three times, either by their own consent or by royal authority, they were joined in one colony, and as often separated," until 1741, when New Hampshire finally became a distinct royal province; and it so remained until the Revolution.

IV. CONNECTICUT

Settlement.— About eleven years after the Pilgrims landed, Lord Say-and-Seal, Lord Brooke, and others, obtained from the Earl of Warwick a transfer of the grant of the Connecticut valley, which he had secured from the Council for New England. The Dutch claimed the territory, and, before the English could take possession, built a fort at Hartford, and commenced traffic with the Indians. Some traders from Plymouth sailing up the river were stopped by the Dutch, who threatened to fire upon them. But they kept on and established a post at Windsor. Many people from Boston, attracted by the rich meadow lands, settled near. In the autumn of 1635, John Steele, one of the proprietors of Cambridge, led a pioneer company "out west," as it was then called, and laid the foundations of Hartford. The next year the main band, with their pastor,— Thomas Hooker, an eloquent and estimable man,— came, driving their flocks before them

[1] To distinguish it from the islands along the coast, this country had been called the Mayne (main) land, which perhaps gave rise to its present name. New Hampshire was so called from Hampshire in England, Mason's home.

through the wilderness. In the meantime, John Winthrop[1] established a fort at the mouth of the river, and

HOOKER'S BAND ON THE WAY TO CONNECTICUT.

thus shut out the Dutch. The fort was named Saybrook, in honor of the proprietors.

The Pequot War.— The colonists had no sooner become settled in their new home than the Pequot Indians endeavored to persuade the Narragansetts to join them in a general attack upon the whites. Roger Williams, hearing of this and forgetting all the injuries he had received, on a stormy night set out in his canoe for the Indian village.

[1] John Winthrop appears in history without blemish. Highly educated and accomplished, he was no less upright and generous. In the bloom of life, he left his brilliant prospects in the Old World to follow the fortunes of the New. When his father had made himself poor in nurturing the Massachusetts colony, this noble son gave up voluntarily his own large inheritance to "further the good work." It was through his personal influence and popularity at court that the liberal charter was procured from Charles II. which guaranteed freedom to Connecticut (p. 69).

Though the Pequot messengers were present, he prevailed upon the old Narragansett chief to remain at home. So the Pequots lost their ally and were forced to fight alone. They commenced by murdering thirty colonists. Captain Mason, therefore, resolved to attack their stronghold on the Mystic River. His party approached the fort at daybreak (June 5, 1637). Aroused by the barking of a dog, the sleepy sentinel shouted, "Owanux! Owanux!" (The Englishmen!), but it was too late. The troops were already within the palisades. The Indians, rallying, made a fierce resistance, when Captain Mason, seizing a firebrand, hurled it among the wigwams. The flames quickly swept through the encampment. The English themselves barely escaped. The few Indians who fled to the swamps were hunted down. The tribe perished in a day.

The Three Colonies.—1. The NEW HAVEN COLONY was founded (1638) by a number of wealthy London families. They took the Bible for law, and only church members could vote. 2. The CONNECTICUT COLONY proper, comprising Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor, adopted a written constitution in which it was agreed to give to all freemen the right to vote. This was the first instance in history of a written constitution framed by the people for the people. 3. The SAYBROOK COLONY was at first governed by the proprietors, but was afterwards sold to the Connecticut Colony. This reduced the three colonies to two.

A Royal Charter was obtained (1662) which added the New Haven Colony to Connecticut, granted in addition a strip of land lying south of Massachusetts and extending west across the whole continent, and guaranteed to all settlers the rights upon which the Connecticut colonists had agreed. This was a precious document, since it gave

them almost independence, and was the most favorable yet granted to any colony. Twenty-five years after, Governor Andros, marching from Boston over the route where the pious Hooker had led his little flock fifty years before, came "glittering with scarlet and lace" into the assembly at Hartford, and demanded the charter. A protracted debate ensued. Tradition loves to relate that, as the people crowded around to take a last look at this guarantee of their liberties, suddenly the lights were extinguished; on their being relighted, the charter was gone; Captain Wadsworth had seized it, escaped through the crowd, and hidden it in the hollow of a tree, famous ever after as the Charter Oak.[1] However, Andros pronounced the charter government at an end. "Finis" was written at the close of the minutes of the assembly's last meeting.

When the governor was so summarily deposed in Boston (p. 65), the people brought the charter from its hiding place, the assembly reconvened, and the "finis" disappeared. In fact, Connecticut governed itself under this charter till long after the Revolution.

V. RHODE ISLAND

Settlement.— Roger Williams settled Providence Plantation in 1636, the year in which Hooker came to Hartford. Other exiles from Massachusetts followed,[2] among them the celebrated Mrs. Hutchinson. A party of these purchased the island of Aquiday (Rhode Island) and established the Rhode Island Plantation. Roger Williams

[1] The story of the Charter Oak is denied by some, who claim that contemporary history does not mention it, and that probably Andros seized the charter, while the colonists had previously made a copy.

[2] Persecuted refugees from every quarter flocked to Providence; and Williams shared equally with all the lands he had obtained, reserving to himself only two small fields which, on his first arrival, he had planted with his own hands.

stamped upon these colonies his favorite idea of religious toleration, i.e. that the civil power has no right to interfere with the religious opinions of men.

Charters.— The colonists wished to join the New England Union, but were refused, ostensibly on the plea that they had no charter. Williams accordingly visited England and obtained a charter uniting the two plantations. On his return, the people met, elected their officers, and (1647) agreed on a set of laws guaranteeing freedom of faith and worship to all —"the first legal declaration of liberty of conscience ever adopted in Europe or America." This colony, however, was never admitted to the New England Union. The other colonies continued to look on it with disfavor, and Massachusetts and Connecticut each claimed the right to govern its territory. A new charter was secured for Rhode Island and Providence Plantations (1663), under which the colony governed itself almost 180 years.

COLLATERAL READINGS

John Smith and the Pilgrims.—Fiske's *Beginnings of New England*, pp. 78–87.
King Philip's War.—Fiske's *Beginnings of New England*, pp. 211–236.

VI. NEW YORK

Settlement.— Soon after the discovery of the Hudson, Dutch ships began to visit the river to traffic in furs with the Indians. Afterwards (1621), the West India Company obtained a grant of New Netherland, and under its patronage permanent settlements were soon made at New Amsterdam[1] and at Fort Orange (Albany). The company allowed persons who should plant a colony of fifty settlers to

[1] Some huts were built by Dutch traders on Manhattan Island, at the mouth of the Hudson, in 1613, and a trading post was established in 1615. In the latter year Fort Nassau was completed south of the present site of Albany.

select and buy land of the Indians, which it was agreed should descend to their heirs forever. These persons were called "patroons" (patrons) of the manor.

The Four Dutch Governors (1626–64).[1]— The early history of New York is marked by a bloody war with the Indians (1643–45) while Kieft was governor, and by difficulties with the Swedes on the Delaware and with the English on the Connecticut.[2] These disturbances are monotonous enough in the recital, but doubtless thrilled the blood of the early Knickerbockers. Peter Stuyvesant, who had lost a leg in the service of Holland, was the last and ablest of the four Dutch governors. He agreed with Connecticut upon the boundary line (1650), and taking an armed force, marched upon the Swedes, who at once submitted to him. But the old governor hated democratic institutions, and was terribly vexed in this wise. There were some English in the colony, and

THE MIDDLE COLONIES.

[1] Peter Minuit, 1626–32; Wouter van Twiller, 1633–38; Sir William Kieft, 1638–47; Peter Stuyvesant, 1647–64. Peter Minuit, the first governor, bought Manhattan Island of the Indians for goods valued at $24. After his recall from New Netherland he went to Sweden, and led out the Swedish colony that settled on the Delaware (p. 76).

[2] These disputes arose from the fact that the Dutch claimed the territory bordering and lying between the Delaware and the Connecticut, on which the Swedes and the English were settling.

they longed for the rights of self-government which the Connecticut people enjoyed. They kept demanding these privileges and talking of them to their Dutch neighbors. In August, 1664, an English fleet came to anchor in the harbor and demanded the surrender of New Netherland in the name of the Duke of York, who had received a grant of this territory from his brother, King Charles II. Stout-

STUYVESANT IN NEW AMSTERDAM (NEW YORK).

hearted old Peter pleaded with his council to fight. But in vain. They rather liked the idea of English rule. The surrender was signed, and at last the reluctant governor attached his name. When the English flag was raised over Manhattan Island, the colony and the town were named New York in honor of the proprietor.

The English Governors disappointed the people by not granting them their coveted rights. A remonstrance against being taxed without representation was burned by the hangman. So that when, after nine years of English rule, a Dutch fleet appeared in the harbor, the people went back quietly under their old rulers. But the next year, peace being restored between England and Holland, New Amsterdam became New York again. Thus ended the Dutch rule in the colonies. Andros, who twelve years after played the tyrant in New England, was the next governor; but he ruled so arbitrarily that he was called home. Under his successor, Dongan, an assembly of the representatives of the people was called, by permission of the Duke of York (1683). This was but a transient gleam of civil freedom, for two years after, when the Duke of York became James II., king of England, he forgot all his promises, forbade legislative assemblies, prohibited printing presses, and annexed the colony to New England. When, however, Andros was driven from Boston, Nicholson, his lieutenant and apt tool of tyranny in New York, was compelled to flee. Captain Leisler (līs'ler), supported by the democracy but bitterly opposed by the aristocracy, thereupon administered affairs until the arrival of Governor Sloughter (slaw'ter). Having forcibly resisted the governor's lieutenant, Leisler was arrested and tried for treason. Sloughter was unwilling to execute him, but Leisler's enemies made the governor drunk, obtained his signature to the death warrant, and before he became sober enough to repent, Leisler was no more.

From this time till the Revolution the struggles of the people with the royal governors for their rights developed the spirit of liberty and paved the way for that eventful crisis.

VII. NEW JERSEY

Settlement.— The present State of New Jersey was embraced in the territory of New Netherland, and the Dutch seem to have had a trading post at Bergen as early as 1618. Soon after New Netherland passed into the hands of the Duke of York, he gave the land[1] between the Hudson and the Delaware to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. In 1664 a company from Long Island and New England settled at Elizabethtown, which they named after Carteret's wife. This was the first permanent English settlement in the State.

East and West Jersey.—In 1676 New Jersey was divided between the proprietors, by the line shown on the map, page 72. Lord Berkeley had already sold his share to two English Quakers. This part was called WEST JERSEY. A company of Quakers soon settled at Burlington. Others followed, and thus West Jersey became a Quaker colony. Sir George Carteret's portion was called EAST JERSEY. After his death it was sold to William Penn and a number of other Quakers, who were then in control of West Jersey.[2]

New Jersey United.— Constant disputes arose out of the land titles. The proprietors finally (1702) surrendered their rights of government to the English crown, and the whole of New Jersey was united with New York under one governor, but with a separate assembly. Thirty-six years after, at the earnest request of the people, New Jersey was set apart as a distinct royal province.

[1] This tract was called New Jersey in honor of Carteret, who had been governor of the island of Jersey in the English Channel.

[2] East Jersey was settled, however, largely by Puritans and Scotch Presbyterians. The latter, having refused to accept the English form of religion, had been bitterly persecuted. Fleeing their native country, they found an asylum in this favored land.

VIII., IX. PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE

Settlement.—The first permanent settlement in Delaware was made near Wilmington (1638), by the Swedes, on a tract which they called New Sweden. They also established the first settlement in Pennsylvania, a few miles below Philadelphia. These settlements were subsequently conquered by the Dutch, but they continued to prosper long after Swedish and Dutch rule had ended.

William Penn, the founder of Pennsylvania, was a celebrated English Quaker.[1] He obtained from Charles II. a grant of land west of the Delaware (1681). This tract Penn named Sylvania, but the king insisted upon calling it Pennsylvania (Penn's Woods), in honor of William Penn's father. The Duke of York added to this grant the present State of Delaware, which for many years was called "the three lower counties on the Delaware." Penn wished to form a refuge for his Quaker brethren, who were bitterly persecuted in England. He at once sent over large numbers, as many as two thousand in a single year. In 1682 he came himself, and was received by the settlers with the greatest cordiality and respect.

[1] The Quakers, avoiding unmeaning forms, aimed to lead purely spiritual lives. Their usual worship was conducted in solemn silence, each soul for itself. They took no oath, made no compliments, removed not the hat to king or ruler, and said "thee" and "thou" to both friend and foe. Every day was to them a holy day, and the Sabbath was simply a day of rest.

William Penn became a Quaker while in college at Oxford. Refusing to wear the customary student's gown, he with others violently assaulted some fellow-students and stripped them of their robes. For this he was expelled. His father would not allow him to return home, but afterwards relented and sent him to Paris, Cork, and other cities, to soften his Quaker peculiarities. After several unhappy quarrels, his father proposed to overlook all else if he would only consent to doff his hat to the king, the Duke of York, and himself. Penn still refusing, he was again turned out of doors. He was several times imprisoned for his religious extremes. On the death of his father, to whom he had once more been reconciled, he inherited a fortune. In 1676 he became part owner of West Jersey. He took the territory which forms Pennsylvania in payment of a debt of £16,000 due his father from the crown.

Philadelphia Founded.— The year following (1683) Penn purchased land of the Swedes, and laid out a city which he named Philadelphia, a name signifying *brotherly love.* It was in the midst of the forest, yet within a year it contained 100 houses; in two years it numbered over 2000 inhabitants; and in three years it gained more than New York had in half a century.

The Great Law was a code agreed upon by the legislative assembly which Penn called from among the settlers soon after his arrival. It made faith in Christ a necessary

Painting by Benjamin West.

PENN'S TREATY WITH THE INDIANS.

qualification for voting and officeholding, but also provided that no one believing in "Almighty God" should be molested in his religious views. The Quakers, having been persecuted themselves, did not celebrate their liberty by persecuting others. Penn himself surrendered the most of his power to the people. His highest ambition seemed to be to advance their interests.

Penn's Treaty with the Indians possesses a romantic interest. He met them under a large elm tree[1] near Philadelphia. The savages were touched by his gentle words and kindly bearing. "We will live in love with William Penn and his children," said they, "as long as the sun and moon shall shine."[2]

Penn's Return.— Penn returned to England (1684), leaving the colony fairly established. His benevolent spirit shone forth in his parting words: "Dear friends, my love salutes you all."

Delaware.— "The three lower counties on the Delaware," being greatly offended by the action of the council which Penn had left to govern in his absence, set up for themselves. Penn "sorrowfully" consented to their action, appointed a deputy governor over them, and afterwards granted them a separate assembly. Pennsylvania and Delaware, however, remained under one governor until the Revolution.

Penn's Heirs, after his death (1718), became proprietors of the flourishing colony he had established. It was ruled by deputies whom they appointed, and who had many quarrels with the legislative assemblies elected by the people. Finally, in 1779, the State of Pennsylvania bought out the claims of the Penn family by the payment of about half a million of dollars.

Mason and Dixon's Line.— A difficulty having arisen with Maryland about boundaries, it was settled by a com-

[1] It was blown down in 1810. A monument now marks the spot. "We meet," said Penn, "on the broad pathway of good faith and good will; no advantage shall be taken on either side, but all shall be openness and love. The friendship between you and me I will not compare to a chain; for that the rains might rust or the falling tree might break. We are the same as if one man's body were to be divided into two parts; we are all one flesh and blood."

[2] "It was the only treaty never sworn to, and the only one never broken." On every hand the Indians waged relentless war with the colonies, but they never shed a drop of Quaker blood.

promise, and the line was run by two surveyors named Mason and Dixon (1763–67). This "Mason and Dixon's Line" afterwards became famous as the division between the slave and the free States.

COLLATERAL READINGS

New Netherland.—Fiske's *Dutch and Quaker Colonies*, vol. i. pp. 96–129.
Pennsylvania.—Fiske's *Dutch and Quaker Colonies*, vol. ii. pp. 147–167.

X. MARYLAND

Settlement.—Lord Baltimore (Cecil Calvert),[1] a Catholic, was anxious to secure for the friends of his church a refuge from the persecutions which they were then suffering in England. He accordingly obtained from King Charles I. a grant of land lying north of the Potomac. The first settlement was made (1634) by his brother, at an Indian village which he called St. Marys, near the mouth of the Potomac.

The Charter was very different from that granted to Virginia, since it gave to all freemen a voice in making the laws. An assembly, called in accordance with this provision, passed (1649) the celebrated Toleration Act, which secured to all Christians liberty to worship God according to the dictates of their own conscience. Maryland, like Rhode Island, became an asylum for the persecuted.

Civil Wars.—1. *Clayborne's Rebellion* (1635).—The Virginia colony claimed that Lord Baltimore's grant covered

[1] His father, George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, with this same design had attempted to plant a colony in Newfoundland. But having failed on account of the severity of the climate, he visited Virginia. When he found that the Catholics were there treated with great harshness, he returned to England, took out a grant of land, and bestowed upon it, in honor of the queen, the name Mary's Land (*Terra Mariæ*). Before the patent had received the great seal of the king, Lord Baltimore died. His son, inheriting the father's noble and benevolent views, secured the grant himself and carried out the philanthropic scheme.

territory belonging to Virginia. Clayborne, a member of the Jamestown council, was especially obstinate in the matter. He had established two trading posts in Maryland, which he prepared to defend by force of arms. A bloody skirmish ensued in which his party was beaten. Clayborne, however, fled to Virginia, and, going to England, appealed to King Charles I. for redress. But the final decision fully sustained the rights of Lord Baltimore under the charter. In 1645, however, Clayborne came back to Maryland, raised a rebellion, and drove Governor Calvert, in his turn, out of the colony. The governor at last raised a strong force, and Clayborne fled. This ended the contest.

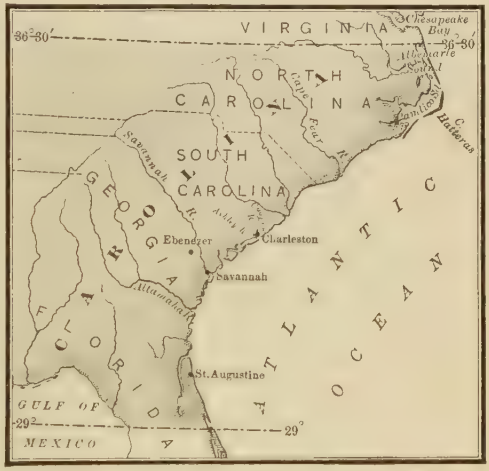
2. *The Protestants and the Catholics.*— The Protestants, having obtained a majority in the Maryland assembly, made a most ungrateful use of their power. They refused to acknowledge the hereditary rights of the proprietor, assailed his religion, excluded Catholics from the assembly, and even declared them outside the protection of the law. Civil war ensued. For years the victory alternated. At one time two governments, one Protestant, the other Catholic, were sustained. In 1691 Lord Baltimore was entirely deprived of his rights as proprietor, and Maryland became a royal province. The Church of England was established, and the Catholics were again disfranchised in the very province they had planted. In 1715 the fourth Lord Baltimore recovered the government, and religious toleration was restored. Maryland remained under this administration until the Revolution.

XI., XII. THE CAROLINAS

Settlement.— Lord Clar'endon and several other noblemen obtained (1663) from Charles II. a grant of a vast

tract south of Virginia, and extending across the continent from sea to sea. It was called, in honor of the king, Carolina.[1] Two permanent settlements were soon made.

1. The Al'bemarle[2] Colony was the name given to a plantation already settled by people who had pushed through the wilderness from Virginia. A governor from their own number was appointed over them. They were then left in quiet to enjoy their liberties and forget the world.[3]



CAROLINA BY THE GRANT OF 1663.

2. The Carteret Colony was established in 1670 by English immigrants. They began a settlement on the banks of the Ashley, but afterwards removed it to the "ancient groves covered with yellow jessamine" which marked the site of the present city of Charleston. The growth of this colony was rapid from the first. Thither came shiploads of Dutch from New York, dissatisfied with the English rule and attracted by the genial climate. The Huguenots (French Protestants), hunted from their homes, here found a Southern welcome.[4]

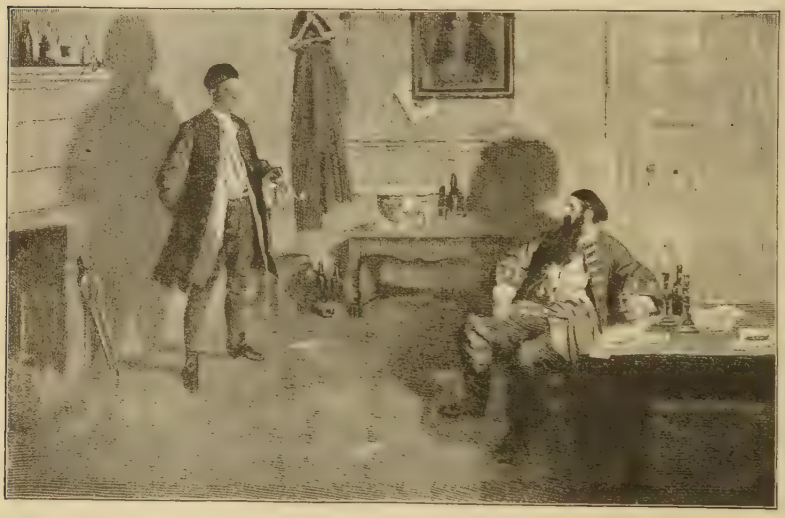
[1] This name, it will be remembered, is the same that Ribaut (p. 35) gave his fort in honor of Charles IX. of France.

[2] Both colonies were named after prominent proprietors of the grant.

[3] Except when rent day came. Then they were called upon to pay to the English proprietors a halfpenny an acre.

[4] In Charleston alone there were at one time as many as 16,000 Huguenots. They added whole streets to the city. Their severe morality, marked charity, elegant man-

The Grand Model was a form of government for the colonies prepared by Lord Shaftesbury and the celebrated philosopher John Locke. It was a magnificent scheme. The wilderness was to be divided into vast estates, with which hereditary titles were to be granted. But the model was aristocratic, while the people were democratic. It granted no rights of self-government, while the settlers came into the wilderness for the love of liberty. This was not the soil on which vain titles and empty pomp



BLACKBEARD.

could flourish. To make the Grand Model a success, it would have been necessary to transform the log cabin into a baronial castle, and the independent settlers into armed retainers. The attempt to introduce the scheme arousing violent opposition, it was at length abandoned.

ners, and thrifty habits made them a most desirable acquisition. Their descendants are eminently honorable, and have borne a proud part in the establishment of our republic.

Pirates.—The Carolina colonies were founded at a time when piracy in and near the West Indies was at its height. The freebooters or buccaneers, as they were called, included many hundreds of men, of all nationalities hostile to Spain; and at first their attacks were made against Spanish ships and towns only. They had strongholds and hiding places in Haiti and some other islands, and along the Carolina coasts. In the early days the Carolina colonists favored the pirates, as they were good customers for produce of various kinds; but before long the pirates began to capture ships trading with Charleston, and then the colonists helped make war on them.[1] By 1730 the pirates were extirpated.

Indian Troubles.—War having broken out with the Tuscarora Indians (1711), the settlers of both the Carolina colonies united in expelling the tribe from the country.[2]

North and South Carolina Separated.—The two colonies,—the northern, or ALBEMARLE, and the southern, or CARTERET,—being so remote from each other, had from the beginning separate governors, though they remained one province. There was constant friction between the settlers and the proprietors. The people were jealous. The proprietors were arbitrary. Rents, taxes, and disputed

[1] One of the most noted pirates was Robert Thatch, commonly called Blackbeard. He once took and robbed some ships as they sailed out from Charleston, and compelled the governor to give him a full line of supplies as ransom for the captured passengers, on pain of their instant death. This was his last great exploit, however, for a little later in the same year (1718) he was killed in a fight with ships from Virginia.

William Kidd, a New York shipmaster, was once sent out to cruise against sea robbers. He turned pirate himself and became the most noted of them all. Returning from his cruise, he was arrested in Boston. He was carried to England, tried, and hanged. Some goods and treasure which he had buried on Gardiners Island (just east of Long Island) were recovered. He was believed to have buried more of his ill-gotten riches on the coast of Long Island or the banks of the Hudson, and these localities have been oftentimes searched by credulous persons seeking for Kidd's treasure.

[2] The Tuscaroras sought refuge in the country of the Five Nations, or Iroquois (p. 12), and a few years later were admitted into this Indian confederacy, which thus became the Six Nations.

rights were plentiful sources of irritation. Things kept on in this unsettled way until (1729) the discouraged proprietors ceded to the crown their right of government and seven eighths of the soil. The two colonies were separated, and they remained royal provinces until the Revolution.

XIII. GEORGIA

Georgia, the last colony of the famous thirteen, was planned in the same year that Washington was born, and after Virginia had been settled for 125 years.

OGLETHORPE AND THE INDIAN CHIEF.

James O'glethorpe, a warm-hearted English officer, having conceived the idea of founding a refuge for debtors im-

prisoned under the severe laws of that time, naturally turned to America, even then the home of the oppressed. He formed a company of twenty-one men, to whom King George II. granted, "in trust for the poor," a tract of land between the Savannah and Altamaha′ rivers, and stretching westward across the continent. This colony was called Georgia, in honor of the king. Oglethorpe made a settlement at Savannah in 1733.[1]

A general interest was excited in England, and many charitable people gave liberally to promote the enterprise. More emigrants followed, including, as in the other colonies, many who sought religious or civil liberty.[2] The trustees limited the size of a man's farm, did not allow women to inherit land, and forbade the importation of rum[3] or of slaves. These restrictions were irksome, and great discontent prevailed. At last the trustees, wearied by the frequent complaints of the colonists, surrendered their charter to the crown. Georgia remained a royal province until the Revolution.

COLLATERAL READING

Pirates.— Fiske's *Old Virginia*, vol. ii. pp. 361–369.

[1] He made peace with the Indians, conciliating them by presents and by his kindly disposition. One of the chiefs gave him in return a buffalo's skin with the head and feathers of an eagle painted on the inside of it. "The eagle," said the chief, "signifies swiftness; and the buffalo, strength. The English are swift as a bird to fly over the vast seas, and as strong as a beast before their enemies. The eagle's feathers are soft and signify love; the buffalo's skin is warm and means protection; therefore love and protect our families."

[2] The gentle Moravians and sturdy Scotch Highlanders were among the number, and proved valuable acquisitions to the colony. The former had fled from Austria for conscience' sake. Lutherans from Salzburg, Austria, founded a colony in the pine forests and named it Ebenezer. When John Wesley, the founder of Methodism, came to America as a missionary with his brother Charles, he was greatly charmed with the fervent piety of this simple people. The celebrated George Whitefield afterwards founded at Savannah an orphan asylum, which he supported by contributions from the immense audiences which his wonderful eloquence attracted to his open-air meetings.

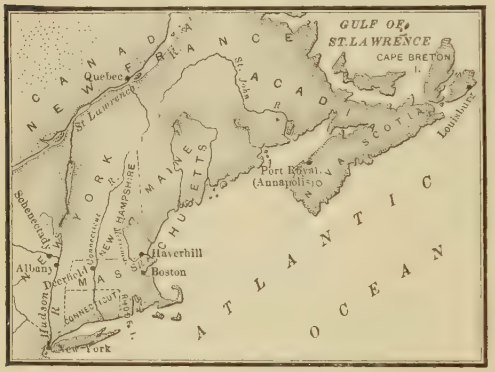
[3] Rum was obtained from the West Indies in exchange for lumber. Hence this law prevented that trade.

XIV. INTERCOLONIAL WARS

1. KING WILLIAM'S WAR (1689–97)

Cause.— War having broken out in Europe between England and France, their colonies in America were forced into the quarrel. The Indians of Canada and Maine aided the French, and the Iroquois helped the English (see p. 37).

Attacks upon the Colonists.— In the depth of winter, war parties of the French and Indians, coming down on their snowshoes from Canada through the forest, fell upon several of the exposed settlements of New York and New England and committed horrible barbarities. Schenectady (sken ec'tady), unsuspecting and defenseless, was attacked at midnight. Men, women, and children were dragged from their beds and tomahawked. The few who escaped, half naked, made their way through the snow of that fearful night to Albany.[1]



NORTHERN COLONIES IN THE INTERCOLONIAL WARS.

[1] The histories of the time abound in thrilling stories of Indian adventure. One day in March, 1697, Haverhill (hā'ver il), Mass., was attacked. Mr. Dustin was at work in the field. Hurrying to his house, he brought out his seven children, and bidding them "run ahead," slowly retreated, keeping the Indians back with his gun. He thus brought off his little flock in safety. His wife, who was unable to escape with him, was dragged into captivity. The party that had captured Mrs. Dustin marched many days through the forest, and at length reached an island in the Merrimac. Here she resolved to escape. A white boy, who had been taken prisoner before, found out from his Indian master, at Mrs. Dustin's request, where to strike a blow that would produce instant death, and how to take off a scalp. Having learned these facts, in the

Attacks by the Colonists.— Aroused by such scenes of savage ferocity, the colonists organized two expeditions: one under Phips (soon after governor of Massachusetts, p. 65) against Port Royal, Acadia; and the other, a combined land and naval attack on Canada. The former was successful, and secured, it is said, plunder enough to pay the expenses of the expedition. The latter was a disastrous failure, owing to the superior ability of Count Fron'tenac, governor of Canada, who managed the war on the side of France.

Peace.— The war lasted eight years. It was ended by the treaty of Ryswick (rĭz'wik), one clause of which provided that England and France should each hold the territory it had at the beginning of the struggle.

2. QUEEN ANNE'S WAR (1702–13)

Cause.— England having declared war against France and Spain, hostilities again broke out between their colonies. The Iroquois or Five Nations had made a treaty with the French, and so took no part in the contest. Their neutrality protected New York from invasion. Consequently, the brunt of the war fell on New England.

Attacks upon the Colonists.— The New England frontier was again desolated.[1] Remote settlements were abandoned. The people betook themselves to palisaded houses, and worked their farms with their guns always at hand.

night she awoke the boy and her nurse, and arranged their parts. The task was soon done. Seizing each a tomahawk, they killed ten of the sleeping Indians; only one escaped. She then scalped the dead bodies in order to prove her story when she should reach home, and hastened to the bank, where, taking one canoe and destroying the others, they descended the river and soon rejoined her family.

[1] On the last night of February, 1704, a party of about 350 French and Indians reached a pine forest near Deerfield, Mass. Toward morning, the stealthy invaders rushed upon the defenseless slumberers, who awoke from their dreams to death or captivity. Leaving the blazing village with forty-seven dead bodies to be

Attacks by the Colonists.— 1. *In the South.*— South Carolina made a fruitless expedition against her old Spanish enemies at St. Augustine (1702).[1]

2. *In the North.*— Port Royal, Nova Scotia, was again wrested from the French by a combined force of English and colonial troops. In honor of the queen, its name was changed to Annap'olis. Another expedition sailed against Quebec, but many of the ships were dashed upon the rocks in the St. Lawrence, and nearly 1000 men perished. Thus ended the second attempt to conquer Canada.

Peace.— The war lasted eleven years. It was ended by the treaty of Utrecht (ū'trĕkt), which, besides settling many European questions, provided that Acadia should belong to Great Britain.

3. KING GEORGE'S WAR[2] (1744–48)

Capture of Louisburg.— War having broken out between Great Britain and France, the flame was soon kindled in the New World. The only event of importance was the

consumed amid the wreck, they then started back with their train of 112 captives through the snow. The horrors of that march can never be told. The groan of helpless exhaustion, or the wail of suffering childhood, was instantly stilled by the pitiless tomahawk. Mrs. Williams, the feeble wife of the minister, had remembered her Bible in the midst of surprise, and comforted herself with its promises till, her strength failing, she commended her five captive children to God, and bent to the savage blow of the war-ax. One of her daughters grew up in captivity, embraced the Catholic faith, and became the wife of a chief. Years after, she visited her friends in Deerfield. The whole village joined in a fast for her deliverance, but her heart loved best her children, and she went back to the fires of her Indian wigwam.

[1] Four years after, the French and Spanish sent a fleet from Havana against Charleston. The people, however, valiantly defended themselves, and soon drove off their assailants.

[2] This war was preceded by what is known as the "SPANISH WAR," which grew out of difficulties then existing between England and Spain. In America, Governor Oglethorpe invested (1740) St. Augustine with a force of 2000 men, but the strength of the Spanish garrison, and the loss by sickness, caused the attempt to be abandoned. The Spaniards, in their turn, sent (1742) an expedition against Georgia. By means of a letter which Governor Oglethorpe caused to fall into the hands of the Spaniards, they were made to believe that he expected large reënforcements. Being

capture of Louisburg,[1] on the island of Cape Breton, by a combined force of British and colonial troops. The latter did most of the fighting, but the former took the glory and the booty. Peace being made in 1748 by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (āks lah shah pĕl′), England gave back Louisburg to the French. The boundaries between the French and the English colonies were left undecided, and so the germ of a new war remained.

4. FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR (1754–63)

Cause.— The English occupied at this time a narrow strip along the coast, 1000 miles in length. It was like a string to the great bow of the French territory, which reached around from Quebec to New Orleans. Both nations, overlooking the real proprietors, the Indians, claimed the region west of the Appalachian Mountains, along the Ohio River. In 1749 Céloron (sā lo rōN′) was sent by the French to take formal possession of the Ohio valley; along the course of the Ohio he buried a number of lead plates on which the French claim was inscribed. The next year the British king granted to the Ohio Company half a million acres in the valley, on condition of settling the territory. The three previous intercolonial wars had engendered bitter hatred, and occasions for quarrel were abundant. The French had over sixty military posts guarding the long line of their possessions. They seized the English surveyors along the Ohio. They

frightened, they burned the fort they had captured, and fled in haste. The English colonies also furnished about 4000 men for an expedition against the Spanish settlements in the West Indies; but only a few hundred returned from this disastrous enterprise.

[1] Louisburg was called the "Gibraltar of America." Its fortifications were extensive, and cost upward of $5,000,000. When the place was captured, the colonial troops themselves were astonished at what they had done. The achievement called forth great rejoicing throughout the country, especially in New England, and had an influence in the Revolutionary War thirty years after.

broke up a British post on the Miam'i. They built a fort on Lake Erie at Presque Isle (presk eel'), near the present city of Erie; another, Fort le Bœuf (l' bŭf'), at the present town of Waterford; and a third, Fort Venan'go, about forty miles south, at the mouth of French Creek (p. 92). These encroachments awakened the liveliest solicitude on the part of the English colonists.

Washington's Journey.— Dinwiddie, lieutenant governor of Virginia, accordingly sent a message by George

WASHINGTON AT FORT LE BŒUF.

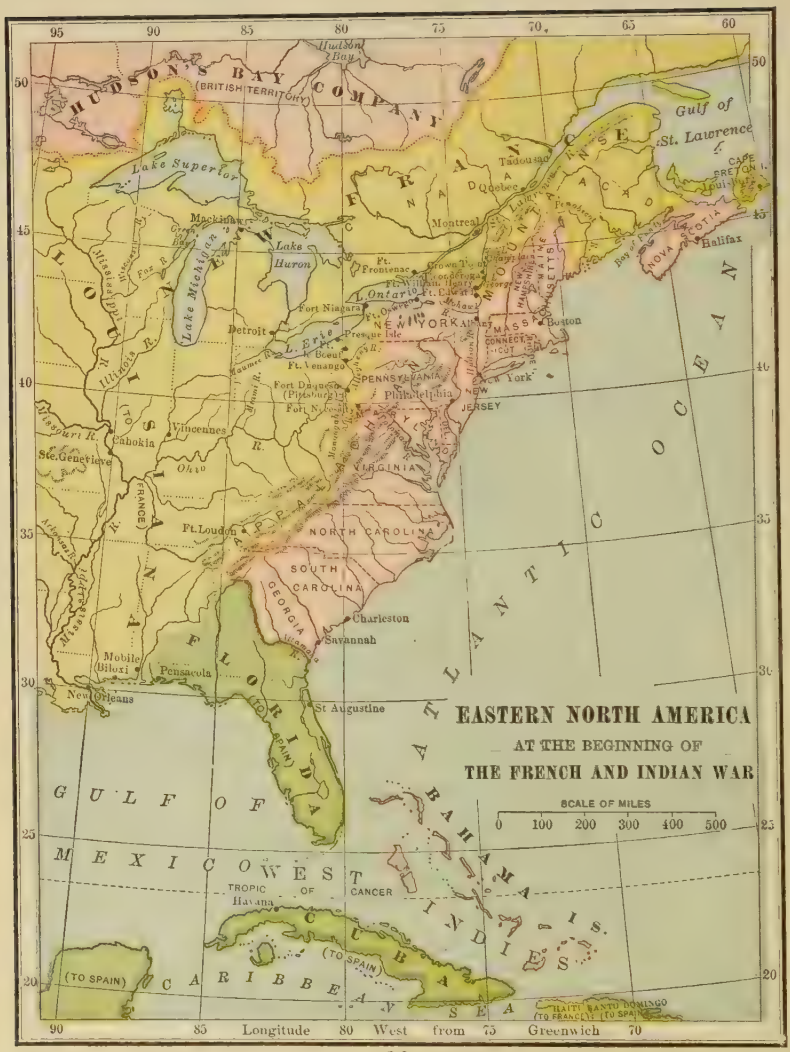
Washington, then a young man of twenty-one, to the French commander of these forts, asking their removal. Washington, after a perilous journey through the wilderness, found the French officer at Fort Venango loud and

boastful. At Fort le Bœuf, the commandant treated him with great respect, but, like a true soldier, refused to discuss claims, and declared himself under orders which he should obey. It was clear that France was determined to hold the territory claimed under the discoveries of the heroic La Salle and Marquette. Washington's return through the wilderness, a distance of 400 miles, was full of peril.[1] At last he reached home unharmed and delivered the French commandant's reply.

War Opens.—Early the next spring (1754), the French, at the fork of the Monongahela and the Allegheny, drove off a party of English traders and erected a fort, which was called Duquesne (du kān′). Soon, among the blackened stumps, corn and barley were growing on the present site of Pittsburg. In the meantime, part of Colonel Fry's regiment of Virginia troops, under Washington, had been sent to occupy this important point. Learning that the French had anticipated them, Washington hastened forward with a reconnoitering party. Jumonville (zhu mōn-veel′), who was hiding among the trees and rocks with a detachment of French troops, waiting an opportunity to attack him, was himself surprised and slain.[2] Washington now retreated to the Great Meadows, where he re-

[1] The streams were swollen. Sleet was falling, and freezing as it fell. The horses gave out, and he was forced to proceed on foot. With only one companion, he quitted the usual path, and, with the compass as his guide, struck boldly out through the forest. An Indian lying in wait fired at him only a few paces off, but, missing, was captured. Attempting to cross the Allegheny on a rude raft, they were caught between large masses of ice floating down the rapid current of the midchannel. Washington thrust out his pole to check the speed, but was jerked into the foaming water. Swimming to an island, he barely saved his life. Fortunately, in the morning the river was frozen over, and he escaped on the ice.

[2] Washington's word of command to fire upon that skulking foe (May 28, 1754) was the opening of the campaign. Washington himself, it is said, fired the first shot of that long and bloody war. The first three intercolonial wars had been merely incidental to wars in Europe. This French and Indian War, on the contrary, began in America. It soon spread to the Old World, where it involved most of the countries of Europe and was known there as the Seven Years' War.


EASTERN NORTH AMERICA
AT THE BEGINNING OF
THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY
(BRITISH TERRITORY)
Hudson Bay
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Mackinaw
Detroit
Fort Niagara
Ft. Frontenac
Ft. Oswego
Ft. Toronto
Montreal
Quebec
Tadousac
Halifax
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Pittsburg
Fort Duquesne (Pittsburg)
Fort Necessity
Ft. Venango
Ft. Le Boeuf
Presque Isle
Fort Du Quesne
Fort Cumberland
Winchester
Alexandria
Williamsburg
Fredericksburg
Vincennes
Cahokia
Ste. Genevieve
Ft. Loudon
Charleston
Savannah
Mobile
Biloxi
Pensacola
New Orleans
St Augustine
Havana
TROPIC OF CANCER
(TO SPAIN)
(TO FRANCE)
HAITI SANTO DOMINGO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
WEST INDIES
CARIBBEAN SEA
LOUISIANA
FLORIDA
NEW FRANCE
NOVA SCOTIA
CAPE BRETON I.
NEW YORK
MASS.
CONNECT.
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
Longitude West from Greenwich
95 90 85 80 75 70 65 60
50 45 40 35 30 25 20

ceived some reënforcements, and built a rude stockade, aptly named Fort Necessity. Here he was attacked by a large force of French and Indians, and, after a severe conflict, was compelled to capitulate.

Franklin's Plan of Union.—At the beginning of this war the British colonies numbered many times more inhabitants than did Canada; yet their military power was less. Canada was ruled by one governor, who exercised all the powers of government. But the different English colonies were distracted by jealousies, and in many cases the governor and the colonial assembly distrusted and hampered each other. These difficulties had appeared in the previous intercolonial wars, and were well known. To avoid them, and secure harmonious action of all the colonies, Franklin proposed a Plan of Union at a congress of delegates that met in Albany (1754) to treat with the Iroquois. This plan provided for a central government that could levy taxes and carry on war. Though approved by the congress, it was rejected by the colonies, as each was unwilling to surrender any of its powers.

The Five Objective Points of the War.—1. Fort Duquesne was the key to the region west of the Appalachians, and so long as the French held it, Virginia and Pennsylvania were exposed to Indian attacks. 2. The French possession of Louisburg and part of Acadia threatened New England, and gave control over the Newfoundland fisheries. Privateers harbored there, to prey on English ships. 3. Crown Point and Ticonderoga controlled the route to and from Canada by the way of Lakes George and Champlain. 4. Fort Niagara lay on the portage between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario, and thus protected the great fur trade of the Upper Lakes and the West. 5. Quebec, the strongest fortification in Canada, gave control

of the St. Lawrence, and largely decided the possession of that province.

We thus see why these points were so persistently attacked by the British, and so obstinately defended by the French. We shall speak of them in order.

1. **Fort Duquesne.**— *The First Expedition* (1755) was commanded by General Braddock. Washington, who acted as an aid-de-camp, warned him of the dangers of savage warfare, but his suggestions were received with contempt. The column arrived within seven miles of the fort, marching along the Monongahela in regular array, drums beating and colors flying. Suddenly they came upon the Indians, who immediately concealed themselves in the thick underbrush on each side and at once opened fire. The terrible war whoop resounded on every hand. The British regulars huddled together, and, frightened, fired by platoons, at random, into rocks and trees. The Virginia troops alone sprang into the forest and fought the savages in Indian style. Washington seemed everywhere present. An Indian chief with his braves specially singled him out. Four balls passed through his clothes; two horses were shot under him. Braddock was mortally wounded and borne from the field. At last, when two thirds of the troops were killed or wounded, the regulars turned and fled. Washington covered their flight and saved the wreck of the army from pursuit.

Second Expedition (1758).— General Forbes led the second expedition, Washington commanding the Virginia troops. The general lost so much time in building roads that in November he was fifty miles from the fort. A council of war decided to give up the attempt; but Washington, receiving news of the weakness of the French garrison, urged a forward movement. He him-

self led the advance guard, and by his vigilance dispelled all danger of Indian surprise. The French fired the fort and fled at his approach.[1] As the flag of Great Britain floated out over the ruined ramparts, this gateway of the West was named Pittsburg, in honor of William Pitt, prime minister of England, whose true friendship for the colonies was warmly appreciated in America.

2. Acadia and Louisburg.— 1. *Acadia.*— We have seen (p. 88) that Acadia was ceded to Great Britain after Queen Anne's War. But the British gained possession of only the peninsula now called Nova Scotia; the part of Acadia now called New Brunswick was still held by the French, who thus attempted to cut down the extent of the new British province. Scarcely had the French and Indian War begun when an attack was made on the French part of Acadia. The forts at the head of the Bay of Fundy were quickly taken, and the entire region east of the Penobscot fell into the hands of the British.[2]

2. *Louisburg.*— General Loudoun (low'don) collected an army at Halifax for an attack on Louisburg (1757). After spending all summer in drilling his troops, he gave up the attempt on learning that during his delay a powerful

[1] Some of them went southward and helped to stir up the Cherokees to attack the Southern colonies. The Cherokee war lasted, with all the atrocities of Indian warfare, till a strong expedition had destroyed many of the Cherokee villages (1761).

[2] This victory was followed by an act of heartless cruelty. The French Acadians of Nova Scotia were driven on board ships at the point of the bayonet, and were distributed among the English colonies. Care was taken, however, not to break up families. The exiles suffered many hardships, and often met insult and abuse. Longfellow pathetically tells the story of the Acadians in his *Evangeline*. The Acadians' houses and barns were burned, and after a time their farms were given to British settlers invited there by the government. But though the British government was thus cruel, it acted only after great provocation. The Acadians were a simple-minded rural people, and if left to themselves might have become loyal British subjects after the treaty of Utrecht made their country a British possession. But French agents urged them to acts of hostility against their new rulers, and they stubbornly refused to take the oath of allegiance to their new king. The government felt that it was unsafe to risk any longer the danger of an Acadian rebellion.

French fleet had arrived for the defense of Louisburg. The next year Generals Amherst (ăm'erst) and Wolfe captured the fortress after a severe bombardment (1758), and took possession of the entire island of Cape Breton.[1]

3. Crown Point and Ticonderoga.—1. *Battle of Lake George* (1755).—About the time of Braddock's expedition, another was made against Crown Point. After many delays the French under Dieskau (dēs'kow) were met near the head of Lake George. General William Johnson was slightly wounded, and retired to his tent, whereupon General Lyman, with his provincial troops, regained the battle then nearly lost. This victory, following closely on the heels of Braddock's disaster, excited great joy. Johnson was given a baronetcy and $25,000; Lyman, the real victor, received nothing. This battle ended the attempt to take Crown Point. Johnson built Fort William Henry near the battlefield, and when winter set in, dismissing the New England militia, went to his stone mansion on the Mohawk. Two years later, Montcalm', the new French general, sweeping down from Canada, captured[2] and destroyed Fort William Henry, although General Webb was at Fort Edward, fourteen miles below, with 6000 men lying idle in camp.

2. *Attack on Ticonderoga* (1758).—On a calm Sunday morning, about four months before the fall of Fort Duquesne, a thousand boats full of British soldiers, with waving flags and strains of martial music, swept down Lake

[1] Abandoning and destroying Louisburg, the English made Halifax, as it is to-day, their chief stronghold in that region.

[2] This victory is noted for an illustration of savage treachery. The British garrison had been guaranteed a safe escort to Fort Edward. But they had scarcely left the fort when the Indians fell upon them to plunder and to slaughter. In vain did the French officers peril their lives to save their captives from the lawless tomahawk. "Kill me," cried Montcalm, in desperation, "but spare the English who are under my protection." The Indian fury, however, was implacable, and the march of the prisoners to Fort Edward became a flight for life.

George to attack Ticonderoga. General Ab'ercrombie, far away in the rear, ordered an assault before his artillery came up. A disastrous repulse was the result.[1]

3. *Capture of both Forts* (1759).— The next year, at the approach of General Amherst with a large army, the French evacuated both Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

4. **Niagara.**— 1. About the time of Braddock's expedition, General Shirley marched to capture Fort Niagara. But reaching Oswego and learning of Braddock's disastrous defeat, he was discouraged. He simply built a fort and came home. The next year that indefatigable French general, Montcalm, crossed the lake from Canada and captured this fort with its garrison and a large amount of public stores.

2. Nothing further was done toward the capture of Fort Niagara till the year 1759, when it was invested by an army under General Prideaux (prĭd'o), and was at last compelled to surrender.

5. **Quebec** (1759).— The same summer in which Forts Niagara, Crown Point, and Ticonderoga were occupied by the British, General Wolfe anchored with a large fleet and 8000 soldiers in front of Quebec. Opposed to him was the vigilant French general, Montcalm, with a command equal to his own. The British cannon easily destroyed the lower city next the river, but the citadel, being on higher ground, was far out of their reach. The bank of the river, for miles a high craggy wall, bristled with cannon at every landing place. For months Wolfe lingered before the city, vainly seeking some feasible point of attack. Carefully

[1] While the army was delaying after this failure, Colonel Bradstreet obtained permission to lead part of it against Fort Frontenac, on the present site of Kingston. Ascending the Mohawk and crossing Lake Ontario, he captured the fort and a large quantity of stores intended for Fort Duquesne. The loss disheartened the garrison of the latter place, frightened off their Indian allies, and did much to cause its evacuation on the approach of the English (pp. 94, 95).

reconnoitering the precipitous bluff above the city, his sharp eyes at length discovered a narrow path winding among the rocks to the top, and he determined to lead his army up this ascent. To distract the enemy's attention, he took his men several miles up the river. Thence dropping down silently[1] by night with the ebb tide, they landed, clambered up the steep cliff, quickly dispersed the guard, and, at daybreak, stood arrayed in order of battle on the Plains of Abraham. Montcalm, astonished at the audacity of the attempt, could scarcely believe it possible. When convinced of its truth, he at once made an impetuous attack. Wolfe's veterans held their fire until the French were close at hand, then poured upon them rapid, steady volleys. The enemy soon wavered. General Wolfe, placing himself at the head,

CLIMBING THE BLUFF ABOVE QUEBEC.

[1] General Wolfe was a great admirer of the poet Gray. On the beautiful starlight evening of the attack, he remarked to those in the boat with him, "I would rather be the author of the *Elegy in a Country Churchyard* than to have the glory of beating the French to-morrow!" and amid the rippling of the water and the dashing of the oars, he repeated:

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Awaits alike the inevitable hour;
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

now ordered a bayonet charge. Already twice wounded, he still pushed forward. A third ball struck him. He was carried to the rear. "They run! They run!" exclaimed the officer on whom he leaned. "Who run?" he faintly gasped. "The French," was the reply. "Now God be praised; I die happy!" murmured the expiring hero. Montcalm, too, was fatally wounded as he was vainly trying to rally the fugitives. On hearing that he could not live more than twelve hours, he said, "So much the better. I shall not see the surrender of Quebec!"

Five days afterwards (September 18, 1759), the city and garrison capitulated.

Close of the War in Canada.— The five places which were especially sought by the British were now all captured. Canada itself, worn out, impoverished, and almost in famine because of the long war, was ready for peace. Early in 1760, however, an attempt was made to recapture Quebec. But a powerful fleet arrived from England in time to raise the siege. A large army under General Amherst marched upon Montreal, and Canada soon submitted. The British flag now waved over the continent, from the Arctic Ocean to the Mississippi.

Spain having joined France in the war against Great Britain, preparations were made to attack her important colonies. An army of British soldiers and American colonists took Havana (1762), the capital of Cuba, after a terrible and costly siege of two months. Another British army captured Manila, the capital of the Philippines.

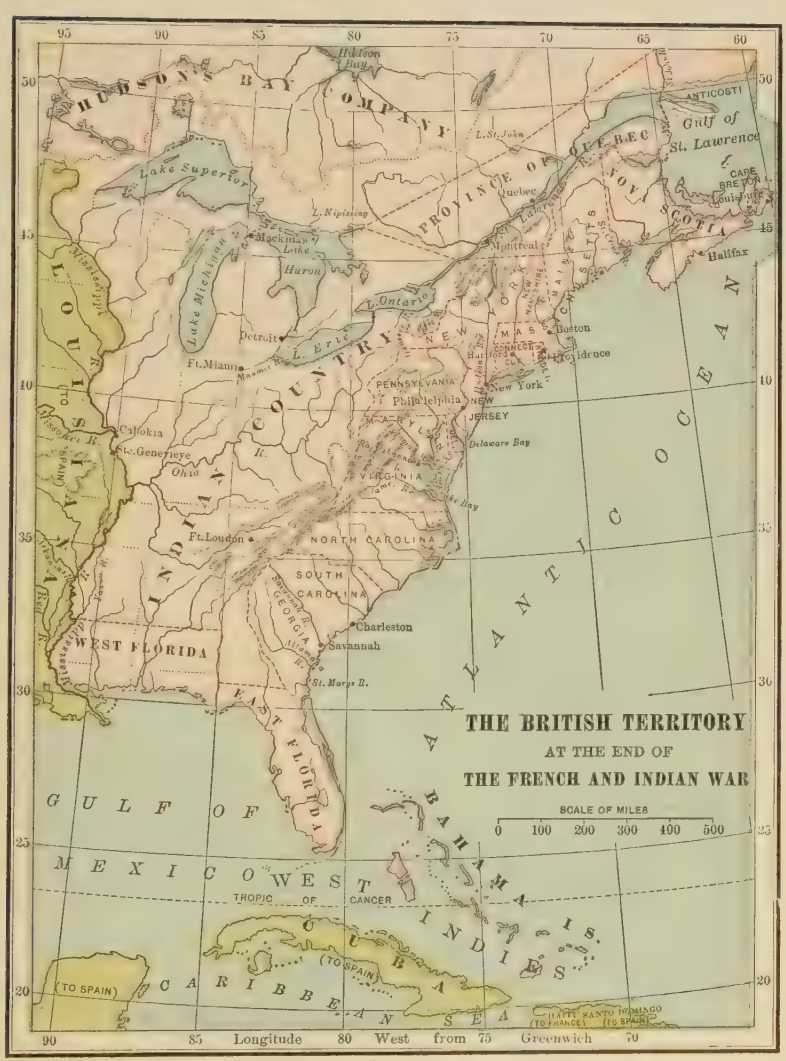
Peace was made at Paris in 1763. Spain ceded Florida to Great Britain in exchange for Havana, which, like Manila, was restored to the Spanish. France gave up to Great Britain all her territory east of the Mississippi, except New Orleans and two small islands south of New-

foundland; while to Spain she ceded New Orleans and all her territory west of the Mississippi.

Great Britain's American territory was thus greatly increased. In the north she now marked out new boundaries for the province of Quebec. In the south she divided Florida into the two provinces of East and West Florida. Then, in order to confine the colonies along the seaboard strictly to the region east of the mountains, she proclaimed the vast interior of virgin forests and fertile prairie to be Indian country into which colonists might not intrude with settlements.

Pontiac's War.— The French traders and missionaries had won the hearts of the Indians. When the more haughty British came to take possession of the western forts, great discontent was aroused. Pon'tiac, a chief of the Ottawas, formed a confederation of the tribes against the common foe. It was secretly agreed to fall upon all the British posts at once. Eight forts were thus surprised and captured.[1] Thousands of persons fled from their homes to avoid the scalping knife. At last, the Indians, disagreeing among themselves, deserted the alliance, and a treaty was signed. Pontiac, still revengeful, fled to the hunting grounds of the Illinois. He was killed (1769), at Cahokia, by an Indian, for the bribe of a barrel of liquor.

[1] Various stratagems were employed to accomplish their designs. At Fort Miami, on the Maumee, a squaw lured forth the commander by imploring aid for an Indian woman dying outside the fort. Once without, he was at the mercy of the ambushed savages. At Mackinaw, hundreds of Indians had gathered. Commencing a game at ball, one party drove the other, as if by accident, toward the fort. The soldiers were attracted to watch the game. At length the ball was thrown over the pickets, and the Indians, jumping after it, began the terrible butchery. The commander, Major Henry, writing in his room, heard the war cry and the shrieks of the victims, and, rushing to his window, beheld the savage work of the tomahawk and the scalping knife. Amid untold perils, he himself escaped. At Detroit, the plot was betrayed (by a squaw, according to some accounts), and when the chiefs were admitted to their proposed council for "brightening the chain of friendship," they found themselves surrounded by an armed garrison. Pontiac and his warriors, however, were allowed to depart. Two days after, he began a siege which lasted several months.


THE BRITISH TERRITORY
AT THE END OF
THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude West from Greenwich
HUDSONS BAY COMPANY
Hudson Bay
ANTICOSTI
Gulf of St. Lawrence
CAPE BRETON
NOVA SCOTIA
Halifax
PROVINCE OF QUEBEC
Quebec
L. St. John
L. Nipissing
Lake Superior
Mackinac
Lake Michigan
Huron
L. Ontario
Montreal
Boston
Providence
Detroit
L. Erie
Ft. Miamis
NEW ENGLAND
PENNSYLVANIA
Philadelphia
New York
NEW JERSEY
Delaware Bay
Ft. Genevieve
Ohio R.
VIRGINIA
Ft. Loudon
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
Charleston
Savannah
St. Marys R.
WEST FLORIDA
EAST FLORIDA
GULF OF MEXICO
TROPIC OF CANCER
BAHAMA IS.
WEST INDIES
CUBA
(TO SPAIN)
CARIBBEAN SEA
HAYTI (TO FRANCE)
SANTO DOMINGO (TO SPAIN)
ATLANTIC OCEAN

Effects of the French and Indian War.— During this war, the colonists spent $16,000,000, and Great Britain repaid only $5,000,000. The Americans lost 30,000 men, and suffered the untold horrors of Indian barbarity. The taxes sometimes equaled two thirds the income of the taxpayer, but were paid without resistance, because levied by the colonists themselves. Men of different colonies and diverse ideas fought shoulder to shoulder, and many sectional jealousies were allayed. They learned to think and act independently of the mother country, and thus came to know their strength. Democratic ideas had taken root. Legislative bodies had been called, troops raised, and supplies voted, not by Great Britain, but by themselves. They had become fond of liberty. They knew their rights and dared maintain them. When they voted money, they kept the purse in their own hands.

The treatment of the British officers also helped to unite the colonists. They made sport of the awkward provincial soldiers. The best American officers were often thrust aside to make place for young British subalterns. But, in spite of sneers, Washington, Gates, Montgomery, Stark, Arnold, Morgan, Putnam, all received their training, and learned how, when the time came, to fight even British regulars.

COLLATERAL READINGS

Opening of French and Indian War.—Parkman's *Wolfe and Montcalm*, vol. i. pp. 128–136, 142–147, 151–161.

Expulsion of Acadians.—Parkman's *Wolfe and Montcalm*, vol. i. pp. 266–284.

Fall of Quebec.—Parkman's *Wolfe and Montcalm*, vol. ii. pp. 280–297.

XV. COLONIAL SOCIETY

Population.— There were now thirteen British colonies in North America, besides Quebec, Nova Scotia, and the

Floridas. They contained nearly 2,000,000 people. The largest city was Philadelphia, with about 25,000 inhabitants. In every colony most of the people were Protestants, but the intolerant religious spirit of early days had moderated.

In all the colonies there were many white indented servants — persons who were bound to service for some fixed period of time, during which they were little better than slaves. There were also negro slaves in every colony, those in the North being chiefly house servants.

Government.—In each of the colonies the taxes were levied and the laws were made[1] by a colonial assembly, members of which were elected by the people. The chief officer in each colony was the governor; and by the method in which the governor was chosen, the colonies may be divided into three classes: charter, royal, and proprietary. In Rhode Island and Connecticut the governors were elected by the people, as their charters provided. New Hampshire, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia were royal colonies, for their governors were appointed by the king. The heirs of Penn appointed the governor of Pennsylvania and Delaware, and the heir of Lord Baltimore appointed the governor of Maryland; these were proprietary colonies.

Most of the offices were held by members of a few leading families, and sometimes descended from father to son.

The Southern colonies were divided into counties for local government. New England had instead the smaller

[1] In accordance with the customs of the age, the laws were severe. There were twelve to seventeen offenses punishable by death. The affairs of private life were regulated by law in a manner that would not now be endured. At Hartford, for example, the ringing of the watchman's bell in the morning was the signal for every one to rise; and in Massachusetts a scold was sometimes gagged and placed near her door, while for other minor offenses the offender was confined in the stocks or the pillory.

division called the town, governed chiefly by the whole body of citizens assembled in "town meeting."[1] In the Middle colonies there were both counties and towns. These differences in the form of local government have persisted in large part to our own time.

Travel.— The usual mode of travel was on foot or horseback, or by means of coasting sloops. The trip from New York to Philadelphia occupied three days if the wind was fair. Until after the Revolution, the mails were carried by post riders on horseback.[2] Even a bridegroom, were he rich or poor, who sought a wife in a distant inland town, rode there on horseback and brought his bride home on a pillion behind him. There were few wheeled vehicles until near the end of the colonial period, and even these few went out of use during the Revolution.

TRAVELING ON HORSEBACK.

The first stage began running between New York and Philadelphia in 1756, and required three days to make the

[1] The town meeting was of inestimable value in cultivating democratic ideas. The young and old, rich and poor, here met on a perfect equality to decide local questions of government.

[2] A mail was started in 1672 between New York and Boston, by way of Hartford, the round trip being made monthly. In time a post-office system was effected by the combination of the colonies, but the only post offices were in a few of the largest cities. Benjamin Franklin was one of the early postmasters general. Accompanied by his daughter Sally, he made a grand tour of the country in his chaise, perfecting and maturing the plan. It took five months to make the rounds which could now be made in as many days.

trip. When, ten years later, the time was reduced to two days, the conveyance, "a good wagon with seats on springs," was called a flying machine!

Manners and Customs.— The colonists had brought with them the ideas and tastes of the mother country, and these long survived in spite of the leveling tendencies and the free spirit of the New World. The catalogues of Harvard and Yale were long arranged according to the rank of the students' families. Distinctions of dress, to mark the higher and the lower ranks of society, as in Europe, were sedulously preserved throughout even democratic New England. Calfskin shoes, up to the time of the Revolution, were the exclusive property of the gentry; the servants wore coarse cowhide. Farmers, mechanics, laborers, and workingmen generally were clothed in red or green baize jackets, leather or striped ticking breeches, and a leather apron. The stiff, hard leather breeches were greased and blacked, and the heavy cowhide shoes, homemade, were set off by huge brass buckles. Hired women wore short gowns of green baize and petticoats of linsey-woolsey.

The colonial gentleman, however, was gay in his morning costume of silk or velvet dressing gown and cap, and his evening attire of blue, green, or purple flowered silk or handsomely embroidered velvet, enriched with gold or silver lace, buttons, and knee buckles. Wide lace ruffles fell over his hands; his street cloak glittered with gold lace; and a gold-headed cane and a gold or silver snuff-box were indispensable signs of his social position.

The New England people were strict in morals. Governor Winthrop prohibited cards and gaming tables. A man was whipped for shooting fowl on Sunday. The names of drunkards were posted up in the alehouses, and

the keepers were forbidden to sell them liquor. Conduct was shaped by a literal interpretation of the Scriptures. The ministers had, at first, almost entire control. A church reproof was the heaviest punishment, and knotty points in theology caused the bitterest discussions.[1]

IN A NEW ENGLAND MEETINGHOUSE.

Only the gentility, including ministers and their wives, graduates of colleges, and those who held office, had Mr. or Mrs. prefixed to their names. Others, above the rank of servant, were called Goodman or Goodwife.

New England farm and village life presented a strange contrast to that with which we are familiar. The first house of the settler was built of logs, the chinks daubed with clay, and the roof thatched with long grass. In the later and better class

[1] In the early Plymouth days, every house was opened on Sunday morning at the tap of the drum. The men and the women, the former armed to the teeth, assembled in front of the captain's house. Three abreast, they marched to the meetinghouse, where every man set down his musket within easy reach. The elders and deacons took their seats in front of the preacher's desk. The old men, the young men, the young women, and the older ones each had their separate place. The boys were kept in order by a constable. The services began with a long prayer, which was followed

of dwellings, the logs were hewn square so as to need no chinking; or a frame was made of heavy oak timbers, well mortised and braced together, the sides were covered with split oak clapboards, and the roof with split cedar shingles, fastened with large wrought-iron nails. The windows consisted of two small lead frames, set with a few tiny diamond-shaped panes of glass (or sometimes oiled paper),[1] and hinged so as to open outward against the house. The doors were of oak plank, and were securely fastened at night by heavy wooden crossbars.

In the center of the house, or externally in the poorer dwellings, rose a stone or brick chimney, about twelve feet square at the base,[2] affording a fireplace large enough for seats to be placed at the side, where the children could sit in the winter evening and look up at the stars. To "lay the fire" was no small matter: for the back, a huge "back log," perhaps four feet long, was rolled in; then on the andirons was placed a "front log"; between these were piled enormous quantities of smaller wood.[3]

The kitchen and the "best room" were the chief apartments. In the kitchen the center of attraction was the

by reading and expounding of the Scriptures, a psalm,—lined by one of the ruling elders,—and the sermon. Instrumental music was absolutely proscribed. The sermon was often three or four hours long, and at the end of each hour the sexton turned the hourglass which stood upon the desk. Woe to the youngster whose eyelids drooped in slumber! The constable, with his wand tipped on one extremity with the foot and on the other with the tail of a hare, brought the heavier end down on the nodding head. The careworn matron who was betrayed into a like offense was reminded of her duty by a touch on the forehead with the softer end of the wand.

[1] As the building stood exactly facing the south, the sun "shone square in" at noon, and gave warning of the dinner hour.

[2] In the better houses a brick oven was built beside the chimney. This was heated by a fire of fine "kindlings," then swept clean, and the bread or beans set in to bake. The bricks retained the high temperature for a long time, and the famous "rye and Indian" bread was left in the oven all night.

[3] Friction matches had not been invented, and the fire was carefully kept over night in the ashes. If it unfortunately "went out," it was relighted by sparks from the flint-and-steel, or by live coals brought from a neighbor's hearth.

great fireplace, with its swinging crane and pothooks to hold the iron pots for cooking.[1] The room was rarely seven feet high, and from the bare joists overhead hung bunches of herbs, seed corn, and long strings of drying apples. The furniture was plain: a tall wooden clock; a

A COLONIAL KITCHEN.

high-backed wooden settle; a dresser set out with the cherished pewter dishes brought over from England; a spinning wheel; and, perhaps, a loom for weaving.

[1] The food was served generally on wooden platters. It was plentiful and coarse. Fresh meat was rarely seen, except when game was taken. The staple diet consisted of salt pork or beef, salt fish, vegetables, and "rye and Indian" bread or "bannocks" — flat cakes of Indian meal or rye baked over the hot coals on the hearth. The farmer's breakfast often consisted mainly of "bean porridge" seasoned with savory herbs. The minister, we are told, had white bread provided for him as a special favor. Ice in summer was unheard of, and the careful housekeeper cooled her butter by hanging it in a pail down the well.

The "best room" was used only on state occasions. Ordinarily it was carefully closed and locked to keep out the flies and preserve its sacred precincts from unlawful intruders.[1] The andirons were of brass that shone like gold. On the mantelshelf stood the high brass candlesticks and the accompanying tray and snuffers. There were no rugs or carpets, but the floor was sanded and marked off by the housewife in many a quaint design. Against the walls hung the family paintings, fondly cherished as mementos not only of the departed, but also of the life beyond the seas. Here, too, was the library containing a few well read books — for books were scarce and costly, and reading was a serious matter, taken up for improvement and not for pastime.[2] Among those few books were sure to be found the family Bible, Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, Young's *Night Thoughts*, Watts's *Improvement of the Mind*, Fox's *Book of Martyrs*, Addison's *Spectator*, and Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

The Middle Colonies.— The manners of the New York people were essentially Dutch. Many customs inaugurated during Dutch rule still remain in vogue. To the Dutch we owe our Christmas visit of Santa Claus, the custom of calling on New Year's Day, colored eggs at Easter, doughnuts, and crullers.

[1] Not only the best room but also the front door and the front yard were considered too good for everyday use. The front yard was carefully fenced off from the portion of the premises to which ordinary people had access. The path through it to the front door was bordered by narrow beds of "posies," including hollyhocks, sunflowers, lilacs, pinks, sweet Williams, peonies, etc.; but our great-grandmothers had no geraniums or verbenas.

[2] As the tiny windows gave little light by day, so by night the homemade tallow candles, or the pine knot on the hearth, shed but a faint or flickering illumination. In cold weather the fire was heaped high, — for wood was abundant, — but through numerous chinks and crevices the winter air poured in, so that, as an old writer remarks, "while one side of the inmate was toasting, the other was freezing." To make matters still worse, the smoke escaping into the room by no means favored study or any other employment requiring the use of the eyes.

The Dutch mansion was built usually of brick. Its gable end, receding in regular steps from the base of the roof to the summit, faced the street. The front door was decorated with a huge brass knocker, burnished daily.

DUTCH HOUSES IN NEW AMSTERDAM.

While the Connecticut mistress spun, wove, and stored her household linens in crowded chests, the Dutch matron scrubbed and scoured her floor and woodwork. The happy burghers breakfasted at dawn, dined at eleven, and retired at sunset. On dark evenings, as a guide for belated wanderers, lighted candles were placed in the front windows.

In Pennsylvania there were more Germans and Scotch-Irish than in any other colony, and also many people of several other nationalities. But the English Quakers were the most influential in forming the character of the

colony. Philadelphia was famous for its flagged sidewalks, —then a rare luxury in any city,— for the regularity of its streets, and the elegance of its brick and stone residences. The trees bordering the carriageways and the gardens and orchards about the houses made it just such a "fair greene country town" as Penn wished it to be.

The Southern Colonists differed widely from the Northern in habits and style of living. In place of thickly settled towns and villages, they had large plantations, and each family was surrounded by a numerous household of servants. The negro quarters formed a hamlet apart, with its gardens and poultry yards. An estate in those days was a little empire. The planter had among his slaves men of every trade,

A VIRGINIA MANSION.

NEGRO QUARTERS.

and they made upon the plantation most of the articles needed for common use. There were large sheds for curing tobacco, and mills for grinding corn and wheat. The tobacco was put up and consigned directly to England.

The heads of these great Southern families lived like

lords, keeping their packs of choice hunting dogs and their stables of blooded horses.

Their spacious mansions were sometimes built of imported brick. Within, the grand staircases, the mantels, and the wainscot reaching from floor to ceiling, were of solid mahogany, elaborately carved and paneled. The sideboards shone with gold and silver plate, and the tables were loaded with the luxuries of the Old World. All labor was done by slaves. Even the superintendence of the plantation and slaves was often committed to overseers, while the master dispensed a generous hospitality and occupied himself with social and political life.

Education.—*The Eastern Colonies.*—Next to their religion the Puritans prized education. When Boston was but six years old, money was appropriated to the seminary at Cambridge, which afterwards grew to be Harvard College (1636). For a time each family gave a peck of corn or a shilling in cash for its support. Common schools had already been provided, and soon (1647) every town was ordered to have a free school, and, if it contained over 100 families, a grammar school. In Connecticut, any town that did not keep a school for three months in the year was liable to a fine. In 1700 ten ministers brought together a number of books for the founding of Yale College. This was first established at Saybrook, but was soon removed to New Haven.

The Middle Colonies had many schools scattered through the towns. In the English period some of the schools were kept by Dutch masters, who taught English as an accomplishment.[1] Delaware is said to have had the

[1] As early as 1702 an act was passed for the "Encouragement of a Grammar Free School in the City of New York." In 1795 George Clinton laid the foundation of the common-school system of the State, and within three years nearly 60,000 children were receiving instruction.

first girls' school in the colonies. The first school in Pennsylvania was started the year Philadelphia was founded. The orrery invented by Dr. Rittenhouse (1768) is still preserved in the college at Princeton.[1] No European institution had its equal.

OLD SWEDISH CHURCH, WILMINGTON, DEL.

Churches were established by the various denominations. The Swedes had a meetinghouse before the landing of Penn. Ministers' salaries were generally paid in produce — wheat, corn, beans, bacon, wood, etc. The Dutch domine of Albany on one occasion received 150 beaver skins.

The Southern Colonies met with great difficulties in their efforts to establish schools. Virginia can boast of the second oldest college in the colonies,— William and Mary (1692), the only one aided by the English government,—yet her English governors bitterly opposed the progress of education. Governor Berkeley, of whose haughty spirit we have already heard, said, "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing presses here, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years."[2]

[1] Princeton College was the fourth to be founded in the colonies (1746); later came the University of Pennsylvania (1749), Columbia, originally King's College (1754), Brown University (1764), Dartmouth (1769), and Rutgers (1770).

[2] The earliest newspaper in Virginia was published in 1736 under government control. The first printing press in the colonies was set up at Cambridge in 1639. Most of the books of that day were collections of sermons. The first permanent newspaper, the Boston *News Letter*, was published in 1704. In 1750 there were only seven newspapers. The *American Daily Advertiser*, the first daily paper, was not issued till 1784.

Free schools were established in Maryland in 1696, and a free school in Charleston in 1712. Private schools were early established by the colonists in every neighborhood.

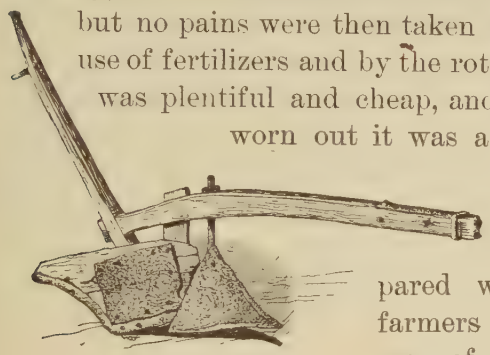
A farm of 100 acres was set apart by law for each clergyman, and also a portion of the "best and first gathered corn" and tobacco. Fines were imposed for absence from church. In Georgia, masters were compelled to send their slaves to church, under a penalty of a fine.

XVI. COLONIAL INDUSTRIES

In colonial times nearly all kinds of industry were carried on in ways very different from those of to-day. There was very little machinery in the country, and many tools that are now common were unknown; therefore it took much more labor to produce a bushel of wheat, or a pair of shoes, or a pound of nails. The people also lacked very many things necessary to our comfort and convenience to-day, either because such articles had not yet been invented, or because they cost too much. As life was thus simpler, there were fewer distinct occupations than now; instead of the thousands of different employments now found in our country, there were then perhaps a hundred.

In general, the Southern colonies were engaged in agriculture, and the Northern colonies in agriculture and commerce. Much lumber was produced in several colonies, many ships were built, and many New Englanders were fishermen. Some manufacturing was carried on, mostly in the homes of the people, and with very simple, handmade machinery. A little iron was produced in nearly every colony, but only in Virginia and Maryland were the mines of much importance.

Agriculture.— In farming, the chief occupation of the country, the colonists had the advantage of a fertile soil; but no pains were then taken to preserve it by the use of fertilizers and by the rotation of crops. Land was plentiful and cheap, and when one field was worn out it was abandoned for a new one. The farming implements were few and clumsy compared with those used by farmers to-day. Grain, the crop of the Middle colonies, was sown by hand, reaped with sickles, and thrashed with flails or trodden out by horses and cattle. Grass was cut with scythes, and the hay was gathered up with hand rakes. The Southern colonies produced much tobacco (then the most valuable export of the country), rice, and indigo. Various crops were raised in all the colonies for the food of the people; but many common vegetables, such as potatoes, tomatoes, and asparagus, were not used by the first settlers.[1] As at present, the supply of beef and pork was not only sufficient for home consumption, but also formed an important export. But both then and for many years thereafter meat was preserved by salting.



COLONIAL PLOW.

Many sheep were raised for their wool, but, like the cattle, they were not generally of such good breeds as those common in our day. Besides wool, practically the only

[1] The potato was originally a native of tropical America; it was improved by cultivation in Europe, and was brought over here in the eighteenth century by Scotch emigrants who obtained it first from Ireland. Tomatoes, or, as they were called, "love apples," were thought to be poisonous, and were cultivated only in the flower garden for the beauty of the bright red fruit. Among other things not used in colonial times were rhubarb, sweet corn, cantaloupes, head lettuce, and all the newer and finer varieties of pears, grapes, peaches, and the like.

fibers produced were flax, hemp, and silk. The cotton raised was quite insignificant in quantity. The production of raw silk in Georgia and the Carolinas was for many years encouraged by English laws, and became of considerable importance. Afterwards, much silk was produced in Connecticut and some other Northern colonies.

Manufactures.— Great forests supplied plenty of fuel, and enough lumber was sawed for the needs of the colonies, besides some for export. Much wood was burned merely for the ashes, from which were made potash and pearlash — exports of much value.

Among the chief colonial manufactures were flour, leather and leather goods, hats, brick, and coarse cloths and clothing made mostly in the household.[1]

The colonists had also made a beginning in the manufacture of salt, paper, glass, and ironware; but the main supply of these and a great many other manufactured articles came from abroad, chiefly from England.

Commerce.— Colonial trade was largely in the hands of Englishmen; but in the North, and especially in New England, were many colonists who followed the sea for a livelihood. Dried and salted fish was the chief export of New England. This was carried by New Englanders, in their own ships, to the colonies farther south and to the West Indies, where perhaps molasses would be bought for the return voyage. A few New England captains engaged in the slave trade; they carried rum to Africa, exchanged it for slaves, carried the slaves to the West Indies (or to the Southern colonies), sold them at a

[1] In household manufacturing the women played a very important part. Besides spinning and weaving the flax and wool, they dyed, knit, made soap and candles, and did many other things that girls nowadays never learn to do. Mrs. Washington, it is said, kept sixteen spinning wheels running. The soldiers of the Revolution were clad mainly in homespun.

great profit, and completed the trip by carrying molasses from the West Indies to New England, where it was made into rum for use in the next voyage to Africa. Colonial ships also carried on a part of the trade with Europe. So many ships were built in the colonies, especially in New England, that part of them were sold abroad.

The money used in the colonies consisted mostly of Spanish silver and gold coins; but money was very scarce, and domestic trade was largely by barter. In early colonial days tobacco served as money in Virginia, wampum in several colonies, and at one time musket balls were made to pass in place of farthings, the law providing that not more than twelve should be given in one payment. The chief reason for the scarcity of money was the fact that the imports from England were worth more than the exports to England, so that the balance had to be paid in cash. For this state of affairs the English laws governing trade with the colonies were largely to blame.

Transportation of freight was by water so far as possible. On the bays and streams, ships could go far into the interior. There were no railroads and very few roads and wagons. Goods were carried long distances by pack animals; and in Virginia and Maryland great tobacco casks were sometimes rolled several miles to the nearest wharf.

ROLLING TOBACCO TO THE WHARF.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

EPOCH II. DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH COLONIES.

1. Virginia.
   1. Character of the Colonists.
   2. John Smith.
      - a. His services.
      - b. His adventures.
   3. The Second Charter.
   4. The "Starving Time."
   5. The Third Charter.
   6. Marriage of Pocahontas.
   7. First Colonial Assembly.
   8. Prosperity of the Colony.
   9. Slavery Introduced (1619).
   10. Indian Troubles.
   11. Virginia Becomes a Royal Province.
   12. Period of Oppression.
   13. Bacon's Rebellion.

2. Massachusetts.
   1. Plymouth Colony.
      1. Landing of Pilgrims.
      2. Character of Pilgrims.
      3. Sufferings of Pilgrims.
      4. The Indians.
      5. Progress of Colony.
   2. Mass. Bay Colony.
      1. Settlement.
      2. Religious Disturbances.
      3. Union of Colonies.
      4. King Philip's War.
      5. N. E. a Royal Province.
      6. Salem Witchcraft.

3. Maine and New Hampshire.

4. Connecticut.
   1. Settlement.
   2. Pequot War.
   3. The Three Colonies.
   4. Royal Charter.

5. Rhode Island.
   1. Settlement.
   2. Charters.

6. New York.
   1. Settlement.
   2. Four Dutch Governors.
   3. The English Governors.

7. New Jersey.
   1. Settlement.
   2. East and West Jersey.
   3. New Jersey United.

8, 9. Pennsylvania and Delaware.
   1. Settlement.
      - a. Swedes and Dutch.
      - b. William Penn.
   2. Philadelphia Founded.
   3. The Great Law.
   4. Penn's Treaty.
   5. Delaware.
   6. Penn's Heirs.
   7. Mason and Dixon's Line.

10. Maryland.
   1. Settlement.
   2. The Charter.
   3. Civil Wars.

11, 12. The Carolinas.
   1. Settlement.
   2. The Grand Model.
   3. Pirates.

13. Georgia.
   4. Indian Troubles.
   5. North and South Carolina Separated.

14. Intercolonial Wars (1689–1763).
   1. King William's War (1689–97).
   2. Queen Anne's War (1702–13).
   3. King George's War (1744–48).
      - a. Cause.
      - b. Attacks upon the Colonists.
      - c. Attacks by the Colonists.
      - d. Peace.
   4. French and Indian War (1754–63).
      - a. Cause.
      - b. Washington's Journey.
      - c. War Opens.
      - d. Franklin's Plan of Union.
      - e. Five Objective Points.
      - f. Spain.
      - g. Peace.
      - h. Pontiac's War.
      - i. Effects.

15. Colonial Society.

16. Colonial Industries.

EPOCH III.—THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

Quarrels with the Mother Country.— For many years there had been a standing quarrel between the colonies and the British government concerning the Navigation Acts and other laws [1] restricting colonial trade and manufacture. It was generally admitted that Parliament had power to make such laws, but they were considered oppressive. As long as France, the bitter enemy of Great Britain, held the vast region north and west of the colonies, the British government did not think it wise to irritate the colonists too greatly. Therefore the Navigation Acts and other restrictive laws were not strictly enforced. The colonists became accustomed to evading them by trading in foreign markets and by smuggling foreign goods into the colonies without paying the duty.

Another standing quarrel was between the royal governors and the colonial assemblies. In theory, the British sovereign was ruler of the colonies. The governors, as his agents, claimed supreme control in carrying out his orders. But the colonial assembly held the pursestrings and often refused to do the governor's bidding.[2]

[1] These acts and laws restricted colonial trade in certain commodities to British markets and British or colonial ships, taxed the trade in other commodities, and either prohibited or greatly hampered manufacturing in the colonies.

[2] The governors were paid by grants made from time to time by the assemblies from taxes which the assemblies levied on the colonists. Thus, when the assembly was not pleased with the actions of the governor, it could grant him no money or but little. Instead of this the governors often demanded a regular salary, but in vain.

Causes of the Revolution.— The French and Indian War, by driving the French from America, rendered it less necessary for Great Britain to heed the wishes of the colonists. Accordingly, the British officers now began to enforce the odious Navigation Acts (1761).[1] Moreover, the British Parliament, urged on by King George III., made a series of attempts to tax the colonists.[2] The colonists resisted these attempts, at first by peaceable means and finally by force of arms, declaring that "taxation without representation is tyranny."

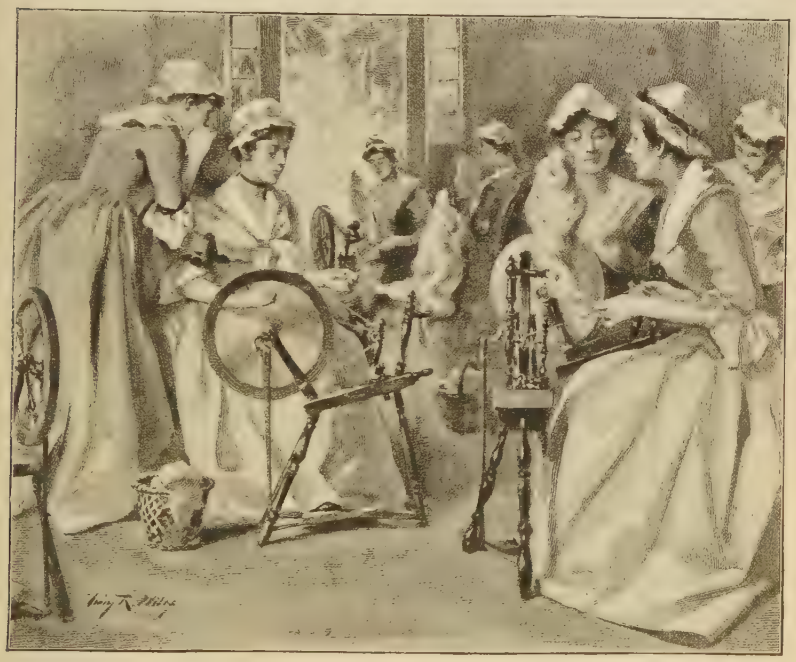
The Stamp Act (1765) ordered that stamps should be put on all legal documents, newspapers, pamphlets, etc. The money paid for the stamps was a tax to support an army for the defense of the colonies. But the colonists, who insisted that they could be rightfully taxed only by their own assemblies, were thoroughly aroused by this law.[3] The houses of British officials were mobbed. Prominent Loyalists were hanged in effigy. Stamped paper was seized. The stamp agents were forced to resign. People

[1] To enforce the Navigation Acts and put a stop to smuggling, the British officers were granted *writs of assistance*, as they were called, or warrants authorizing them to search for smuggled goods. Under this pretext, a petty customhouse official could enter any man's house or store at his pleasure. The colonists resisted such search as a violation of their rights. James Otis, who resigned the office of advocate-general to argue the cause of the people in Boston, exclaimed, "To my dying day I will oppose, with all the powers and faculties God has given me, all such instruments of slavery on the one hand and villainy on the other." "Then and there," said John Adams, "the trumpet of the Revolution was sounded."

[2] The colonists did not object to being taxed by their own assemblies which they themselves had elected, but maintained that Parliament had no right to tax them, because they were not represented in Parliament—that is, they did not help to elect any of its members.

[3] The assembly of Virginia was the first to make public opposition to this odious act. Patrick Henry, a brilliant young lawyer, introduced a resolution denying the right of Parliament to tax America. He boldly asserted that the king had played the tyrant; and, alluding to the fate of other tyrants, exclaimed, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I. had his Cromwell, and George III.—" Here pausing till the cry of "Treason! Treason!" from several parts of the house had ended, he deliberately added—"may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it."

agreed not to use any article of British manufacture.[1] Associations, called the "Sons of Liberty," were formed to resist the law. Delegates from nine of the colonies met at New York (the "Stamp Act Congress") and framed a Declaration of Rights, and a petition to the king and



A SPINNING BEE.

Parliament. The 1st of November, appointed for the Stamp Act to go into effect, was observed as a day of mourning. Bells were tolled, flags were raised at halfmast,

[1] The newspapers of the day mention many wealthy people who conformed to this agreement. On one occasion forty or fifty young ladies, who called themselves "Daughters of Liberty," brought their spinning wheels to the house of Rev. Mr. Morehead, in Boston, and during the day spun 232 skeins of yarn, which they presented to their pastor. "Within eighteen months," wrote a gentleman at Newport, R. I., "487 yards of cloth and 36 pairs of stockings have been spun and knit in the family of James Nixon of this town." In Newport and Boston the ladies, at their tea drinkings, used, instead of imported tea, the dried leaves of the raspberry.

and business was suspended. Samuel and John Adams, Patrick Henry, and James Otis, by their stirring and patriotic speeches, aroused the people over the whole land.

Alarmed by these demonstrations, the British Parliament repealed the Stamp Act (1766), but still declared its right to tax the colonies.

The Townshend Acts, soon after passed by Parliament, laid a tax upon tea, glass, paper, etc., and established a Board of Trade at Boston to act independently of the colonial assemblies. The money raised by the new tax was to pay the salaries of the colonial governors and other officers to be appointed by the crown.

Mutiny Act.— Troops were sent from England to enforce the laws. The Mutiny Act ordered that the colonies should provide these soldiers with food and shelter. To be taxed illegally was bad enough, but to support armed oppressors was unendurable. The New York assembly, having refused to comply, was forbidden to pass any legislative acts.

The colonists, meanwhile, made new agreements not to buy any British goods till the duties were repealed. The Massachusetts assembly sent a circular letter to the other colonies, urging a union for redress of grievances. The king's secretary for colonial affairs ordered the assembly to rescind its action; but it almost unanimously refused. By this time the assemblies of nearly all the colonies had declared that Parliament had no right to tax them without their consent.

Boston Massacre.— Boston being considered the hotbed of the rebellion, General Gage was sent thither with two regiments of troops. The people refused them shelter, but the Sons of Liberty allowed a part to sleep in Faneuil (făn′ĭl) Hall, while the rest encamped on the Common.

Cannon were planted, sentries posted, and citizens challenged. Frequent quarrels took place between the people and the soldiers. One day (March 5, 1770) a crowd of men and boys insulted the city guard. A fight ensued, in which three citizens were killed and eight wounded. Bells were rung, the country people rushed in to help the city, and it was with difficulty that quiet was restored.[1]

Boston Tea Party (December 16, 1773).— Parliament, alarmed by the opposition of the colonists, rescinded the taxes, except that on tea—which was left to maintain the principle. Tea was now furnished at so low a price that, with the tax included, it was cheaper in America than in England. But the patriots were fighting for a great principle, not against a paltry tax. At Charleston the tea was stored away instead of being placed on the market.[2] The tea ships at New York and Philadelphia were sent home. The British authorities refused to let the tea ships at Boston return. Thereupon, at a public meeting held in Old South Meetinghouse, it was decided that the tea should never be brought ashore. Men disguised as Indians boarded the vessels and emptied the tea into the water.

The Climax Reached.— The British government at once retaliated. The charter of Massachusetts was annulled, and General Gage was appointed military governor of the colony. The port of Boston was ordered closed[3] until the tea should be paid for, thus stopping business and causing great distress. The Virginia assembly protested

[1] The soldiers were tried for murder. John Adams and Josiah Quincy, who stood foremost in opposition to British aggression, defended them. All were acquitted except two, who were found guilty of manslaughter.

[2] After the outbreak of the Revolution, this tea was sold by the government of South Carolina, and the proceeds were applied to the public service.

[3] Marblehead and Salem, refusing to profit by the ruin of their rival, offered the use of their wharfs to the Boston merchants. Aid and sympathy were received from all sides. Even distant Georgia donated 63 barrels of rice and $720 in money.

against this measure, and was dissolved by the governor. Party lines were drawn. Those resisting the king were termed Whigs, and those supporting him, Tories or Loyalists.[1] Everywhere were repeated the thrilling words of Patrick Henry, "Give me liberty or give me death." Companies of militia termed "minutemen" were formed. The idea of a continental union became popular. Gage, being alarmed, fortified Boston Neck, and seized powder wherever he could find it. Only a spark was needed to kindle the slumbering hatred into the flames of war.

The First Continental Congress (September 5, 1774) was held in Philadelphia, and represented every colony except Georgia. As yet, few members had any idea of independence. The Congress simply voted that obedience was not due to the recent acts of Parliament, and sustained Massachusetts in her resistance. It issued a protest against standing armies being kept in the colonies without the consent of the people, and agreed to hold no commercial intercourse with Great Britain.[2]

EVENTS OF 1775

Battle of Lexington (April 19).— General Gage, learning that the people were gathering military stores at Concord, sent a force of 800 men to destroy them. The patriots of Boston, however, were on the alert, and hurried out messengers to alarm the country.[3] When the redcoats, as the

[1] About a third of the American people were Tories, and both Whigs and Tories included persons of every class and character, from the noblest to the meanest. During and after the Revolution thousands of the Loyalists were deprived of their property and were obliged to flee from the country.

[2] It also prepared addresses to the king, to the people of Great Britain, and to the Canadians; and fixed the date for the meeting of a second Congress the next year.

[3] Paul Revere caused two lights to be hung up in the steeple of Old North Church. They were seen in Charlestown; messengers set out, and he soon followed on his famous midnight ride. (Read Longfellow's poem.)

British soldiers were called, reached Lexington, they found a company of minutemen gathering on the village green. The British commander shouted, "Disperse, you rebels; lay down your arms!" They hesitated. A skirmish ensued, in which seven Americans — the first martyrs of the Revolution — were killed.

LEXINGTON, CONCORD, AND BUNKER HILL.

The British soldiers pushed on to Concord and destroyed the stores. But, alarmed by the gathering militia, they hastily retreated. It was none too soon. The whole region flew to arms. From behind trees, fences, buildings, and rocks, in front, flank, and rear, so galling a fire was poured that, but for reënforcements from Boston, none of the British would have reached the city alive. As it was, they lost nearly 300 men.

Effects.— The news that American blood had been shed flew like wildfire. Patriots came pouring in from all sides. Putnam,[1] without changing his working clothes, mounted his horse and rode all the way to Boston, over 100 miles. Soon, 20,000 men were building intrenchments to shut up the British in the city. Provincial con-

[1] Israel Putnam, familiarly known as "Old Put," was born in Salem, Mass., 1718. Many stories are told of his great courage and presence of mind. When a youth he once crawled into a cave to shoot a wolf which had long defied attack. At Fort Edward, when all others fled, he alone fought back the fire from a gunpowder magazine, protected by only a thin partition. In 1758 a party of Indians took him prisoner, bound him to a stake, and made ready to torture him with fire. The flames were already scorching his limbs, and death seemed certain, when a French officer burst through the crowd and saved his life.

gresses were formed in the various colonies. Committees of safety were appointed to call out the militia and provide for any emergency. The power of the royal governors was broken from Massachusetts to Georgia.

Battle of Bunker Hill (June 17).—The patriot leader, General Ward, having learned that the British intended to fortify Bunker Hill, sent Colonel Prescott to anticipate them.

WATCHING THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.

Prescott and his men, however, set to work on Breeds Hill instead. It was bright moonlight, and they were so near Boston that the sentinel's "All's well!" was distinctly heard. At daylight, the British officers were startled to see the redoubt which had been constructed. Resolved to

drive the Americans from their position, General Howe crossed the river with 3000 men. The roofs of Boston were crowded with spectators, intently watching the troops as they slowly ascended the hill. When the redcoats were within ten rods, a blaze of light shot from the earthworks, and whole platoons of the British fell. The survivors, unable to endure the terrible slaughter, broke and fled. They were rallied under cover of the smoke of Charlestown, which Gage had set on fire. Again they were met by that deadly discharge, and again they fled. Reënforcements being received, the third time they advanced. Only one volley smote them, and then the firing ceased. The American ammunition was exhausted. The British charged over the ramparts with fixed bayonets. The patriots gallantly resisted with clubbed muskets, but were soon driven from the field.[1]

The Effect of this first regular battle was that of a victory for the Americans. Their untrained farmer soldiers, while ammunition lasted, had repulsed the British veterans. The determination to resist tyranny was intensified.

Capture of Ticonderoga (May 10).—Ethan Allen[2] and

[1] As General Warren was trying to rally the troops a British officer shot him. Warren had just received his appointment as major general, but had crossed Charlestown Neck in the midst of flying balls, reached the redoubt, and offered himself as a volunteer. Gage said that his fall was worth that of 500 ordinary rebels.

[2] Ethan Allen was a native of Connecticut. He emigrated to Vermont, which was then part of the colony of New York, though this claim was violently disputed by New Hampshire. The governor of New Hampshire issued so many grants of land there that the region became known as the *New Hampshire Grants*. New York tried to eject those who held land under these grants. Ethan Allen became conspicuous in the resistance that ensued. The "Green Mountain Boys" made him their colonel, and he kept a watchful eye on the officers from New York who sought by form of law to dispossess the settlers of farms which had been bought and made valuable by their own labor. The Revolutionary War caused a lull in these hostilities, and the Green Mountain Boys turned their arms upon the common enemy. Allen subsequently aided Montgomery in his Canadian expedition (pp. 128, 129), but, in a foolhardy attempt upon Montreal, was taken prisoner and sent to England. After a long captivity he was released, and returned home. Generous and frank, a vigorous writer, loyal to his country and his friends, he exerted a powerful influence on the early history of Vermont.

Benedict Arnold led a small company of volunteers to surprise the fortress of Ticonderoga. As Allen rushed in, a sentinel snapped his gun at him and fled. Making his way to the commander's quarters, Allen, in a voice of thunder, ordered him to surrender. "By whose authority?" exclaimed the frightened officer. "In the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress!" shouted Allen. No resistance was attempted. Large stores of cannon and ammunition, then much needed by the troops at Boston, fell into the hands of the Americans, without the loss of a man. Crown Point soon after was as easily taken. (Map, p. 132.)

The Second Continental Congress (May 10) met at Philadelphia in the midst of these stirring events. It voted to raise 20,000 men, and appointed General Washington commander in chief. A petition to King George III. was prepared, which he refused to receive. He declared that the colonists were rebels, and to subdue them he hired troops from the Count of Hesse Cassel[1] and other petty German rulers. These acts destroyed all hope of reconciliation.

Condition of the Army.—When Washington arrived before Boston, and took command under the famous Cambridge Elm (July 3), the army numbered but 14,000 men. Few of them were drilled; some were already weary of the hardships of war; all were badly clothed and poorly armed; and there were less than nine rounds of ammunition to each soldier. Washington made every exertion to relieve their wants, and meanwhile kept Gage penned up in Boston.

Expedition against Canada.— Late in the summer General Montgomery, leading an army by way of Lake

[1] Hence these hired soldiers were called *Hessians*.

Champlain, captured St. Johns and Montreal, and then appeared before Quebec. Here he was joined by Colonel Arnold with a crowd of half-famished men, who had ascended the Kennebec and then struggled through the wilderness.

Attack upon Quebec.— Their united force was less than 1000 effective men. Having besieged the city for three

WASHINGTON TAKES COMMAND OF THE ARMY.

weeks, they decided to risk an assault. In the midst of a terrible snowstorm they led their forces in a gallant attack, but the attempt failed.[1] The Americans blockaded

[1] As Montgomery's men rushed forward, a rude blockhouse appeared through the blinding snow. Charging upon it, Montgomery fell at the first fire, and his followers, disheartened, fled. Arnold, meanwhile, approached the opposite side of the city. While bravely fighting, he was severely wounded in the leg and borne to the rear. Morgan, his successor, pressed on the attack, but, unable either to retreat or to advance against the tremendous odds, was forced to surrender.

the city until spring, but at the approach of British reënforcements they were glad to escape, leaving Canada in the hands of Great Britain.

EVENTS OF 1776

Evacuation of Boston (March 17).— Washington, in order to compel the British to fight or run, sent a force to fortify Dorchester Heights by night. In the morning the British were once more astonished to see intrenchments which overlooked the city, and which were steadily made stronger. General Howe, who was then in command, remembering the lesson of Bunker Hill, set sail for Halifax with his army, fleet, and many Loyalists. The next day Washington entered Boston amid great rejoicing.[1]

Attack on Fort Moultrie (June 28).— Early in the summer a British fleet appeared off Charleston and opened fire on Fort Moultrie (moo'trĭ).[2] So fearful was the response from Moultrie's guns that the ships were disabled and forced to sail away. General Clinton, with some British troops, tried to attack the fort in rear, but the fire of the American riflemen was too severe. This victory delighted the colonists, as it was their first encounter with the ships of the boasted "Mistress of the Seas."

[1] For eleven months the inhabitants had endured the horrors of a siege and the insolence of the enemy. Their houses had been pillaged, their shops rifled, and their churches profaned. Even the boys in their sports had sometimes been wantonly annoyed by the British soldiers. A famous story is told of how the boys complained in vain to the British officers about their trampled snow hills and the spoiled ice of their skating pond, and at last took their story to General Gage himself, who was so struck with their sturdy appeal that he gave orders to stop the trouble.

[2] The fort of palmetto logs was so called, after this action, in honor of Colonel Moultrie, its gallant defender. Early in the action the flagstaff was cut off by a ball. Sergeant Jasper leaped over the breastwork, caught up the flag, tied it to a sponge-staff (an instrument for cleaning cannon), and hoisted it to its place. The next day Governor Rutledge offered him a lieutenant's commission. He refused it, saying, "I am not fit for the company of officers; I am only a sergeant."

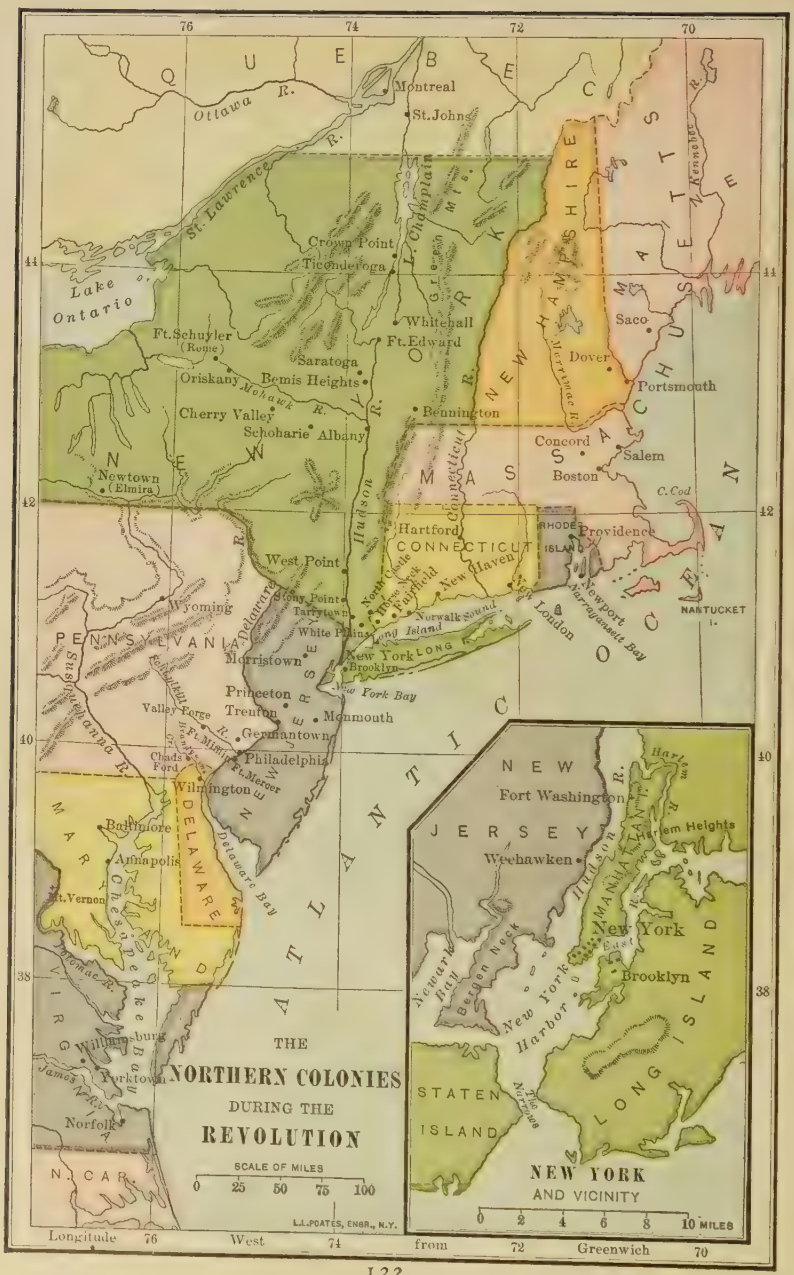
Declaration of Independence (July 4).— Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, introduced in the Congress a resolution that "these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States." This was passed (July 2) after each of the colonies had declared in favor of the separation from Great Britain. The report of the com-

INDEPENDENCE HALL, WHERE THE DECLARATION WAS ADOPTED.

mittee[1] appointed to draw up a Declaration of Independence was adopted on July 4.[2] The war up to this time

[1] Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston composed this committee; but the Declaration was almost wholly from the pen of Jefferson. (Read the Declaration, in the appendix of this book.)

[2] The building in which Congress met, and in which the Declaration was adopted, was the Pennsylvania Statehouse, now called Independence Hall. In its steeple was a bell on which, by a happy coincidence, was inscribed: "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land unto all the inhabitants thereof." This famous "Liberty Bell" played an important part in the celebration held after the first public reading of the Declaration (July 8).


THE
NORTHERN COLONIES
DURING THE
REVOLUTION
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 75 100
L.L.POATES, ENGR., N.Y.
NEW YORK
AND VICINITY
0 2 4 6 8 10 MILES
Longitude 76 West 74 from 72 Greenwich 70
Montreal
St.Johns
Ottawa R.
St. Lawrence R.
Lake Ontario
Crown Point
Ticonderoga
L. Champlain
Whitehall
Ft.Edward
Saratoga
Oriskany
Bemis Heights
Mohawk R.
Cherry Valley
Schoharie
Albany
Ft.Schuyler (Rome)
Newtown (Elmira)
Bennington
Hudson R.
Connecticut R.
Hartford
CONNECTICUT
West Point
Wyoming
Stony Point
Tarrytown
White Plains
Morristown
Princeton
Trenton
Monmouth
Valley Forge
Germantown
Philadelphia
Chads Ford
Ft.Mifflin
Ft.Mercer
Wilmington
Baltimore
Annapolis
Mt.Vernon
Chesapeake Bay
Delaware Bay
Delaware R.
Susquehanna R.
Potomac R.
Williamsburg
Yorktown
James R.
Norfolk
N. CAR.
Providence
RHODE ISLAND
Newport
Narragansett Bay
NANTUCKET I.
C. Cod
Boston
Concord
Salem
Dover
Portsmouth
Saco
Merrimack R.
Kennebec R.
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
ATLANTIC OCEAN
North Castle
Horse Neck
Fairfield
New Haven
Norwalk
Norwalk Sound
Long Island
LONG ISLAND
New York
Brooklyn
New York Bay
Fort Washington
Weehawken
Harlem R.
Harlem Heights
Hudson R.
Manhattan I.
East R.
Newark Bay
Bergen Neck
New York Harbor
Staten Island
Narrows

had been fought merely to secure a redress of grievances; but from now on it was a war for the life of a new and independent country.[1]

Campaign near New York.— General Howe, after evacuating Boston, went to Halifax, but soon set sail for New York. Thither also came Admiral Howe, his brother, with reënforcements from England, and General Clinton from his defeat at Fort Moultrie. Washington, divining Howe's plans, now gathered his forces at New York to protect that city. His force was but one third as large as the British army.

Battle of Long Island (August 27).— The British army landed on the southwest shore of Long Island. General Putnam held a fort at Brooklyn and defenses on a range of hills south of the city. The English attacked the defenses in front and rear, with superior numbers. About one fourth of the Americans engaged were lost.[2]

Had Howe attacked the fort at Brooklyn immediately, the Americans might have been destroyed. Fortunately, he delayed for the fleet to arrive. On the second night after the battle, in a dense fog, the Americans moved silently down to the shore and crossed the river to New York. In the morning, when the sun scattered the fog, Howe was chagrined to find that his prey had escaped.

[1] The desire for independence, entertained at first by only a very few, spread steadily after the outbreak of hostilities. Many were persuaded by Thomas Paine's pamphlet *Common Sense*, which appeared in January, 1776, and of which more than 100,000 copies were printed. This set forth in a striking manner the reasons for regarding reconciliation as hopeless, and for declaring independence without delay.

[2] Many of the captives were consigned to the prison ships kept near Brooklyn. Their hard lot made the fate of those who perished in battle to be envied. During the war, over 11,000 American prisoners died in these loathsome hulks. Their bodies were buried in the beach, whence, for years after, they were washed out from the sand by every tide. In 1808 the remains of these martyrs were interred near the navy yard, Brooklyn; and in 1873 they were finally placed in a vault at Washington Park in the same city.

Washington's Retreat.— The British, crossing to New York,[1] moved to attack Washington, who had taken post on HARLEM HEIGHTS. Finding the American position too strong, Howe moved up the East River in order to gain the rear. Washington left a strong garrison in Fort Washington on the Hudson, and withdrew the rest of his army to WHITE PLAINS. Here Howe came up and gained a small victory. Washington having retired farther north, Howe sent the Hessians to take FORT WASHINGTON, which they captured after a fierce resistance (November 16).

Flight through New Jersey.—Washington had now retired into New Jersey in order to protect Philadelphia. Cornwallis, with 6000 men, hurried after him, and for three weeks pursued the flying Americans.[2] At last, Washington reached the Delaware, secured all the boats, and crossed into Pennsylvania.[3] Howe had to wait for the river to freeze over, meanwhile quartering his troops in the neighboring villages.

Robert Morris.[4]— The disastrous retreat into Pennsylvania was regarded by the British, and by many Americans, as the definite overthrow of the Revolution. Many

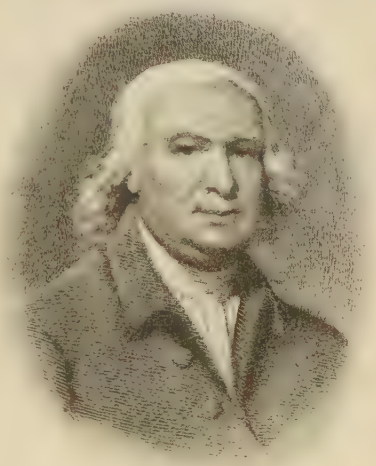
[1] Captain Nathan Hale had been sent by Washington as a spy into the British camps on Long Island. He passed the lines safely, but on his way back was recognized and arrested. Being taken to Howe's headquarters, he was tried and executed. No clergyman was allowed to visit him; even a Bible was denied him; and his farewell letters to his mother and sister were destroyed. His last words were, "I regret that I have but one life to lose for my country!"

[2] Many of the patriots had no shoes, and left their bloodstained footprints on the frozen ground. Oftentimes the van of the pursuing army was in sight of the American rear guard.

[3] During this retreat Washington repeatedly sent orders to General Charles Lee, who was then at North Castle, to join him. Lee hesitated, and at last moved very slowly. One day, while quartered in a small tavern remote from his troops, he was taken prisoner by the English cavalry. His capture was considered a great disaster by many Americans, who thought he was the best officer in the army.

[4] Robert Morris was a signer of the Declaration of Independence, though he had opposed its adoption. He was one of the leading members of Congress, and worked hard as one of the committee of ways and means. In 1781 he became Superintendent of Finance. To supply the needs of his country, he issued his personal notes to the amount

declared in favor of the enemy. Washington had apparently lost his campaign; his hungry, naked, and unpaid army was slipping away; and the empty-handed government was in flight. Washington appealed to Robert Morris, of Philadelphia, to save his army and save the cause; and Morris nobly saved them. He raised money on his own private credit to pay the soldiers, to clothe, equip, and supply them, and thus to keep them together.



ROBERT MORRIS.

The Battle of Trenton.— Washington was thus enabled to strike a daring blow. On Christmas night, in a storm of sleet, amid drifting ice that threatened every moment to crush the boats, he crossed the Delaware with 2400 picked men, fell upon the Hessians at Trenton, captured 1000 prisoners, slew their leader,[1] and safely escaped

of several million dollars, and paid them so promptly that they always stood at par; whereas the government notes depreciated to utter worthlessness. After Washington, we owe American independence perhaps most largely to the financial skill and the sacrifices of this remarkable man. Final victory would have been impossible without the funds which he supplied. The government, in its financial straits, was slow in repaying the money which he advanced. Like Washington, too, he had to bear the malicious attacks of personal enemies, to which his high public station exposed him. Some years after the war, his business affairs became involved through unfortunate investments. He was reduced to poverty and was cast into a debtor's prison, where he languished four years. He died (1806) a few years after his release.

[1] Colonel Rahl attended some Christmas festivities which were kept up all night long. A messenger came, at early dawn, with a note warning him of the approach of the American forces. But the colonel thrust it unopened into his pocket. Soon after daylight the roll of drums was heard, and the Americans were in pursuit of the surprised Hessians.

back to camp, with the loss of only four men — two killed and two frozen to death.

Effects.— The fires of patriotism were kindled afresh by this brilliant feat. New recruits were received, and the troops, whose term of enlistment was expiring, were persuaded to remain a few weeks more. Howe ordered Cornwallis, who was just setting sail for England, to return and prepare for a winter's campaign.

EVENTS OF 1777

Battle of Princeton (January 3).— Washington soon crossed the Delaware again, and took post at Trenton. Just before sunset Cornwallis came up. His first onset being repulsed, he decided to wait till morning to "catch the fox." Washington's situation was now most critical. Before him was a powerful army; behind him a river full of floating ice. That night, leaving his camp fires burning to deceive the enemy, he crept around the British, fell upon some troops near Princeton, routed them, took over 200 prisoners, and by rapid marches reached in safety the hilly region about Morristown. Cornwallis heard the firing and hurried to the rescue, but he was too late. The victory was won, and the victors were beyond pursuit.

WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT MORRISTOWN.

Nearly all of New Jersey was soon regained by the patriot forces. The victories of Trenton and Princeton

won for Washington universal praise, and he was declared to be the savior of his country.

Campaign in Pennsylvania.— Howe, having spent the next summer at New York, where he was closely watched by Washington, finally took the field, and maneuvered to force the patriot army to a general fight. Finding the "American Fabius" too wary for him, he suddenly embarked the larger part of his force and set sail. Washington hurried south with his small army to protect Philadelphia.

Battle of Brandywine (September 11).— Howe's army having landed at the head of Chesapeake Bay, the Americans took position at Chads Ford, on the Brandywine. Here they were attacked in front, while Cornwallis stole around to the rear. Sullivan, Stirling, Lafayette,[1] Wayne, and Count Pulaski in vain performed prodigies of valor. The patriots were defeated. After further maneuvering, Philadelphia was taken, and the British army went into quarters there and at Germantown.

Battle of Germantown (October 4).— Washington would not let the enemies of his country rest in peace. Making a night march, at sunrise he fell upon their troops at Germantown. At first the attack was successful, but a few British desperately defending a stone house caused delay. The coöperation of the different divisions was prevented

[1] Marquis de Lafayette, at a banquet in honor of the brother of the British king in 1775, heard of the uprising in New England. He was won by the American arguments, and from that time joined his hopes and sympathies to the American cause. He was a nobleman of high rank, not yet twenty years of age; he had just married a woman whom he tenderly loved; his prospects at home for honor and happiness were bright. Yet his zeal for America led him to sacrifice his ease and brilliant prospects at home. He purchased a vessel, fitted it out at his own expense, and, escaping the officers sent to detain him, crossed the ocean. Hastening to Philadelphia, he asked permission to serve as a volunteer without pay. A few days after, his acquaintance with Washington began, and it soon ripened into a tender and intimate friendship. His valor won for him a commission as major general before he was twenty-one.

by a dense fog, which also hid the confusion of the enemy, so that the Americans retreated when victory was near.[1]

CHEW HOUSE — THE STONE HOUSE DEFENDED BY THE BRITISH AT GERMANTOWN.

Campaign in the North.— The main plan of the British government for this year was to conquer New York and cut off New England from the other colonies. An expedition from Canada up Lake Champlain was to join hands at Albany with an expedition from New York up the Hudson, and with another smaller one from Lake Ontario by way of the Mohawk valley.

Burgoyne's Invasion.— In June Burgoyne′ marched south from Canada with an army of British, Germans, and Indians. Forts Crown Point, Ticonderoga, and Edward, and the supplies at Whitehall, successively fell into his hands. General Schuyler's (skī′lerz) small force could

[1] After these battles Howe turned his attention to the forts on the Delaware, which prevented his bringing supplies up to Philadelphia. The gallant defenders were soon forced by a severe bombardment to evacuate the forts. Washington now retired to Valley Forge for winter quarters.

only obstruct his path through the wilderness by felling trees across the roads and breaking down bridges. The loss of so many strongholds caused general alarm. Lincoln, with the Massachusetts troops, Arnold, noted for his headlong valor, and Morgan, with his famous riflemen, were sent to help check Burgoyne's advance, and militiamen were gathered from the neighboring States.[1]

Burgoyne's Difficulties.—1. Burgoyne was disappointed to hear no news of the expedition from New York. Howe knew about the plan, but the final order to him was mislaid in England, so that he never received it. Instead of moving up the Hudson, Howe made his expedition against Philadelphia, and was greatly delayed by Washington. Some British troops left in New York at last started up the Hudson, but they were too late.

2. Colonel St. Leger, with the expedition that was to move down the Mohawk valley, got no farther than Fort Schuyler,[2] which he closely besieged. A small force of militia, under Herkimer, promptly advanced to its relief, but was ambuscaded by Tories and Indians at Oris'kany. There was fought one of the most desperate and murderous battles of the war (August 6).[3] The Americans were victorious, but were too much crippled to pursue. Next, General Arnold was sent by General Schuyler to relieve the fort. Fearing that he could not reach it in time, he had recourse to stratagem. A half-witted Tory prisoner was promised his freedom if he would hurry on

[1] The outrages of the Indians along Burgoyne's route — especially the killing and scalping of a beautiful young lady named Jane McCrea — led many to join the patriot army. Burgoyne tried to restrain the Indians, whereupon they deserted him and returned to their homes.

[2] This fort was originally named Fort Stanwix; it stood on the site of Rome, N. Y.

[3] The same day, the garrison of Fort Schuyler made a sortie and plundered St. Leger's camp. Returning, the Americans hoisted the captured British standards, and above them a crudely made American flag — the first flag with stars and stripes ever hoisted. This national emblem had been adopted by Congress only a few weeks before.

and tell St. Leger's troops that a large body of Americans was close at hand. The Tory, having cut holes in his clothes, ran breathless into the camp of the besiegers, showing the bullet-holes and describing his narrow escape from the enemy. When asked their number, he mysteriously pointed upward to the leaves on the trees. The Indians and British were so frightened that they fled precipitately, leaving their tents and artillery behind them!

3. Burgoyne sent a detachment under Colonel Baum to seize the supplies the Americans had collected at Bennington, Vt. There it was met by the militia under General Stark.[1] His patriotism and bravery so inspired his raw troops that they defeated the German regulars and took over 600 prisoners (August 16).

The Two Battles of Saratoga (September 19, October 7).—Disappointed in his expectation of supplies and reënforcements from all these directions, Burgoyne moved southward and attacked the American army, now under General Gates,[2] at Bemis Heights,[3] near Saratō'ga. The strife did not cease until darkness closed over the battlefield. For two weeks afterwards both armies lay in camp, fortifying their positions, and each watching for an oppor-

[1] A famous anecdote is told of General Stark at this battle—that he exclaimed, "There are the redcoats; we must beat them to-day, or Molly Stark is a widow." Although his wife's name was Elizabeth, "Molly" may have been her nickname.

[2] Schuyler's retreat (p. 138) had caused such loss of confidence in him that, by order of Congress, he was superseded by Gates—just as he was ready to reap the result of his well laid schemes. With noble-minded patriotism he worked on as zealously as ever till Gates arrived, and then generously offered to assist him.

[3] The American fortifications at Bemis Heights were thrown up under the direction of Kosciusko (kos si us'ko). This general was a Pole of noble birth. While in France he formed the acquaintance of Franklin, who recommended him to Washington. He came to America and offered himself "to fight as a volunteer for American independence." Washington was greatly pleased with him, and made him his aid. He became a colonel in the engineer corps, and superintended the construction of the works at West Point. After the war, he returned home and led the Poles in their struggles for independence.

tunity to take the other at a disadvantage. Burgoyne's provisions were low, and in desperation he moved out to attack the Americans again. Arnold, who had been unjustly deprived of his command since the last battle, maddened by the sight of the conflict, rushed into the thickest of the fight. Gates sent an officer to recall him, but he was already out of reach. He had no authority to fight, much less to direct; but, dashing to the head of his old command, where he was received with cheers, he ordered a charge on the British line. Urging on the fight, leading every onset, delivering his orders in person where the bullets flew thickest, he forced the British[1] to their camp. Here the Hessians, dismayed by these terrific attacks, fired one volley and fled. Arnold, having forced an entrance, was wounded in the same leg as at Quebec (p. 129), and was borne from the field, but not until he had won a victory while Gates stayed idle in his tent.

Effects of these Battles.— Burgoyne now fell back to Saratoga. Hemmed in on all sides, he saw no hope of escape. Provisions were nearly exhausted and water was scarce, as only the women dared go to the river for it. The American batteries commanded the British camp.[2]

[1] General Fraser was the mind and soul of the British army. General Morgan soon saw that this brave man alone stood between the Americans and victory. Calling some of his best men, he said, "That gallant officer is General Fraser. I admire and honor him; but he must die. Stand among those bushes and do your duty." In five minutes Fraser fell, mortally wounded.

[2] While a council of war, held in Burgoyne's tent, was considering the question of surrender, an eighteen-pound cannon ball passed over the table around which the officers sat. Under such circumstances the decision was quickly made.

Burgoyne was not the only British general who came to grief this year. General Prescott, the British commander in Rhode Island, had become very negligent in the fancied security afforded by the British ships and the superior British force around him. Dexterously avoiding the enemy's vessels, Colonel Barton and about forty militia rowed ten miles in whaleboats, landed near Prescott's quarters, seized the astonished sentinel who guarded his door, and hurried off the half-dressed general. An exchange of prisoners being proposed, General Howe parted with Charles Lee (p. 134) in exchange for Prescott.

After some negotiating, Burgoyne's entire army, nearly 6000 strong, laid down their arms. General Burgoyne surrendered his sword to General Gates, who promptly returned it.

A shout of joy went up all over the land at the news of this victory. From the despair caused by the defeats of

BURGOYNE'S SURRENDER.

Brandywine and Germantown, the nation now rose to the highest pitch of confidence. In a few months Great Britain sent commissioners with liberal proposals, which, before the war began, would have been accepted; but that day was past.[1]

[1] Next, bribery was tried. Among those approached was General Reed of Pennsylvania. He was offered 10,000 guineas and high honors if he would exert his influence to effect a reconciliation. "I am not worth purchasing," said the honest patriot, "but such as I am, the king of Great Britain is not rich enough to buy me."

EVENTS OF 1778

Winter in Valley Forge (1777–78).— The winter passed by Washington's army in Valley Forge was the gloomiest period of the war. Besides borrowing what it could, the Congress had been obliged to issue much "Continental" paper money, and this was now so depreciated in value that an officer's pay would not keep him in clothes. Many, having spent their fortunes in the war, were compelled to resign in order to get a living. The men were encamped in cold, comfortless huts, with little food or clothing. Barefooted, they left on the frozen ground their tracks in blood. Few had blankets, and straw could not be obtained. Soldiers who were enfeebled by hunger and benumbed by cold slept on the bare earth. Sickness followed. With no change of clothing, no suitable food, and no medicines, death was the only relief.

Amid this terrible suffering the fires of patriotism burned brightly. Washington felt that his cause was just, and inspired all around him with his sublime faith.[1] The soldiers were well drilled by Baron von Steuben, a veteran from the famous army of Frederick the Great of Prussia. The thorough discipline and European tactics which Steuben introduced among the ragged patriots made them thereafter more reliable and efficient in military operations.

Aid from France.— In the spring came the good news

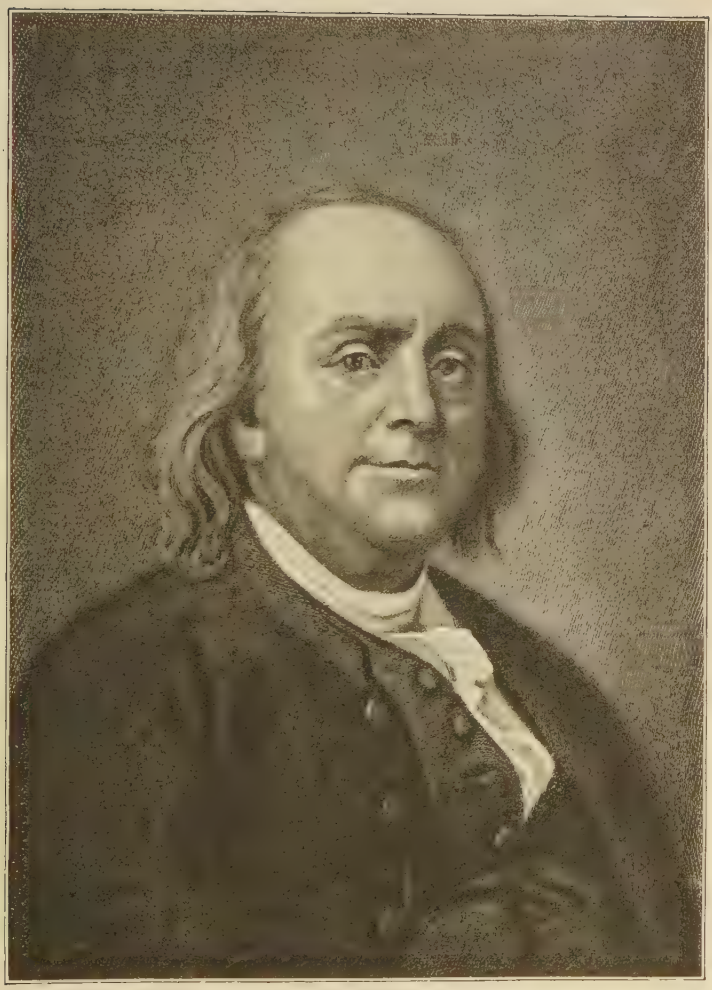
[1] Besides all the perils of want and famine which he shared with his soldiers, Washington was called upon to suffer from envy and calumny. General Conway, a cunning, restless intriguer, formed a cabal of officers against Washington. Their plan was to wound his feelings so that he would resign. In that event, Gates, whose reputation was very high, would succeed to the command. Pennsylvania sent to Congress a remonstrance censuring Washington. The same was done by members from Massachusetts. Fortunately, the army and the best citizens knew the inspiration of the movement to be jealousy, and the attack recoiled on the heads of its instigators.

that, through the efforts of Franklin,[1] France had acknowledged the independence of the United States, and that a fleet was on its way to help them in their struggle. In this action France was influenced by her old hatred of England, and by the great victory which the Americans had won over Burgoyne.

Battle of Monmouth (June 28).—The British government, alarmed by the sending of the French fleet, ordered Clinton, the successor of General Howe, to evacuate Philadelphia and concentrate his forces at New York. Washington rapidly followed the British across New Jersey, and overtook them at Monmouth. General Lee,[2] who conducted the attack, ordered a retreat. The men, en-

[1] Benjamin Franklin was born in Boston, 1706; died in Philadelphia, 1790. His father was a soap and candle maker, with small means, and Benjamin, being the youngest boy among seventeen children, had little opportunity to gratify his desire for knowledge. By abstaining from meat he managed to buy a few books, which he diligently studied. At seventeen years of age he landed in Philadelphia with a silver dollar and a shilling in copper. As he walked along the streets, eating the roll of bread which served for his breakfast, his future wife stood at her father's door and smiled at his awkward appearance, little dreaming of his brilliant future or of its interest to her. He soon obtained employment as a printer. After a time he established a newspaper, and in 1732 began to publish *Poor Richard's Almanac*, which for twenty years was quite as popular in Europe as in America. Its common-sense proverbs and useful hints are household words to this day. Retiring from business with a fine fortune, he devoted himself chiefly to science. His discoveries in electricity are world renowned. Franklin was an unflinching patriot and an able statesman. His Plan of Union (p. 93) anticipated some of the features of our present government. While acting as agent for Pennsylvania in England (1757 and later) he defended the cause of liberty with great zeal and ability. He helped to draft the Declaration of Independence, and was one of its signers. Having been appointed ambassador to France, he first invested all his ready money, $15,000, in the Continental loan — a practical proof of his patriotism, since its repayment was extremely improbable. His influence at the French court was unbounded. He was revered for his wit, his genius, his dignity, and his charming conversation. On his return he was elected president of Pennsylvania for three successive years. He gave the whole of his salary, $30,000, to benevolent objects. In his eighty-second year he was a member of the Constitutional Convention. At his death 20,000 persons assembled to do honor to his memory.

[2] Charles Lee, for his conduct at Monmouth and for disrespectful letters to Washington and to Congress, was suspended and later dismissed from the army. It is now believed that he was a traitor to the patriot cause. During his captivity he had supplied Howe with a plan for the capture of Philadelphia — a fact not known for many years after this. His conduct at Monmouth was no doubt treasonable.



Benj. Franklin

tangled in a swamp, were becoming demoralized as they retired from the field, when Washington, riding up, bitterly rebuked Lee, rallied the men, and sent them back against the enemy. The fight lasted all that long, sultry day.[1] In the night Clinton stole away with his men to New York.

Campaign in Rhode Island.—A combined attack on Newport was arranged to be made by the French fleet under D'Estaing (dĕs tăn′) and the American army under General Sullivan. Soon after the French entered Narragansett Bay, the British fleet arrived off the harbor. D'Estaing went out to meet it. A storm came on, which so shattered both fleets that they were compelled to put back for repairs. The French then withdrew, and General Sullivan, being thus deserted, retreated just in time to escape Clinton, who came from New York with reënforcements.

The Wyoming Massacre.—In July a band of Tories and Indians, under Butler, entered the beautiful Wyoming valley, on the Susquehanna.[2] Most of the able-bodied men had gone to the war. The women and children fled to a fort for refuge. A handful of old men and boys sallied out to meet the invaders, but were quickly defeated. All that night the Indians tortured their prison-

[1] During the day an artilleryman named Hays was shot at his post. His wife, Mary, while bringing water to her husband from a spring, saw him fall. Instantly dropping her pitcher, she hastened to the cannon, seized the rammer, and with great skill and courage performed her husband's duty. The soldiers gave her the nickname of Molly Pitcher. Congress voted her a sergeant's commission warrant with half-pay through life.

[2] The lands granted by the charters of Connecticut and Pennsylvania overlapped; hence for a long time the northern part of Pennsylvania was in dispute between these two colonies. The Wyoming valley was settled by Connecticut men, under the management of a Connecticut company, only a few years before the outbreak of the Revolution. The armed efforts of the Pennsylvania authorities to dispossess these settlers amounted almost to civil war, when the Revolution turned the attention of all in another direction. The dispute was finally settled by Congress in favor of Pennsylvania.

ers in every way that savage cruelty could devise. The next day the fort was surrendered on promise of safety, but Butler could not restrain his savage allies. By night the whole valley was ablaze with burning dwellings, while the people fled for their lives through the wilderness.

COLLATERAL READING

Effects of Saratoga.— Fiske's *American Revolution*, vol. ii. pp. 1–11.

EVENTS OF 1779

Campaign in the South.— At the close of the autumn of 1778 the British transferred the war to Georgia, and the South became henceforth the principal seat of conflict. Savannah and Augusta were captured (p. 152), and soon the entire State was apparently conquered. The British governor being restored, Great Britain could once more boast of a royal province among the colonies. The British general, Prevost (preh vō′), next marched against Charleston and summoned the city to surrender; but was driven off by Lincoln.

French-American Attack on Savannah.—In September a French force under D'Estaing joined Lincoln in besieging Savannah. After a severe bombardment, an unsuccessful assault was made, in which many lives were lost. Count Pulaski[1] was mortally wounded. The simple-hearted Sergeant Jasper died grasping the banner presented to his regiment at Fort Moultrie (p. 130).

Campaign in the North.— Clinton at New York did little except to send out predatory parties. Norwalk, Fairfield, and New Haven, Conn., were either burned or plundered.

[1] Count Pulaski was a Polish patriot who, having lost his father and brothers in the hopeless defense of his country, and being himself outlawed, came to fight for the freedom of America. He commanded a famous independent corps called "Pulaski's Legion." He was buried in the Savannah River.

Tryon, who commanded the Connecticut expedition,[1] boasted of his clemency in leaving a single house standing on the New England coast.

The Capture of Stony Point (July 16), a British outpost on the Hudson, by General Wayne, was one of the most brilliant exploits of the war. Stealing up in the darkness to the base of the hill on which the fort was situated, Wayne's men began the ascent, with unloaded muskets and fixed bayonets. They had nearly reached the sentinel before they were discovered. Fire was at once opened upon them. Wayne was wounded, but commanded his aids to carry him along with them at the head of the column. The rush of his men was irresistible. An instant more, and a deafening shout told that the fort was won. The British lost in killed, wounded, and prisoners several hundred men.

General Sullivan's Expedition.— The atrocities of the Indians had kept the inhabitants of the upper Susquehanna and Mohawk valleys in continued terror. In the summer, General Sullivan led an expedition into the Iroquois country. At Newtown, now Elmira, N. Y., he defeated the Indians and their Tory allies in a fierce battle, and then marched to and fro through the beautiful region east of the Genesee, laying waste the Indians' cornfields, felling their orchards, and burning their houses.

Clark's Conquest of the West.— In 1778 George Rogers Clark had succeeded, with only 200 men, in overawing the Indians and capturing the few British posts in a vast region in the wild west, north of the Ohio; but the British

[1] General Putnam was at Horse Neck, Connecticut, when Tryon was in the vicinity. Hastily gathering a few militia, he annoyed the British as long as possible, and then, compelled to flee before the enemy's overwhelming force, his men hid themselves in the adjacent swamp, while he, spurring his spirited horse over a precipice, descended a zigzag path where the British dragoons did not dare to follow.

recaptured Vincennes. In a vigorous campaign in 1779, Clark again took Vincennes, and established the authority of Virginia throughout this country as far west as the Mississippi River.

CLARK'S CONQUEST OF THE NORTHWEST.

Naval Exploits. — At the beginning of the war the colonists fitted out privateers to cruise along the New England coast; and Congress ordered the building of a few war ships. Swift sailing vessels, manned by bold seamen, soon infested every avenue of commerce. Within three years they captured hundreds of British ships. They even cruised around the British Isles, and, entering harbors, seized and burned ships lying at English wharfs.

Paul Jones is the most famous of these naval heroes. While cruising with a small squadron off the northeast coast of England, he met the *Serapis* and the *Countess of Scarborough* convoying a fleet of merchantmen. In the evening of September 23, 1779, he laid his own vessel, the *Bonhomme Richard*,[1] alongside the *Serapis*, and a desperate struggle ensued. In the midst of the engagement he lashed the ships together.[2] The crews then

[1] Jones had given this name (Goodman Richard) to his ship in honor of Dr. Franklin, whose sayings as "Poor Richard" he warmly admired.

[2] The ships had twice fallen foul of each other. The first time, the *Serapis* hailed the *Richard*, asking if she had "struck her colors." "I have not yet begun to fight," was the reply of Jones. The *Pallas*, one of Jones's squadron, captured the *Countess of Scarborough*, but his other ships gave no aid.

fought hand to hand. The *Richard* was old and rotten. Water poured into the hold. Three times both vessels were on fire. About ten o'clock the *Serapis* surrendered. Jones transferred his crew from the fast-sinking vessel to the captured frigate, and sailed for Holland.

CAPTURE OF THE SERAPIS.

EVENTS OF 1780

Campaign in the South.— Georgia having been subdued, the British under Clinton carried the war into South Carolina. Charleston was attacked by land and sea. General Lincoln, after enduring a siege of forty days and a terrible bombardment, was forced to surrender. Marauding expeditions[1] soon overran the whole State. Clinton returned to New York, leaving Cornwallis in command.

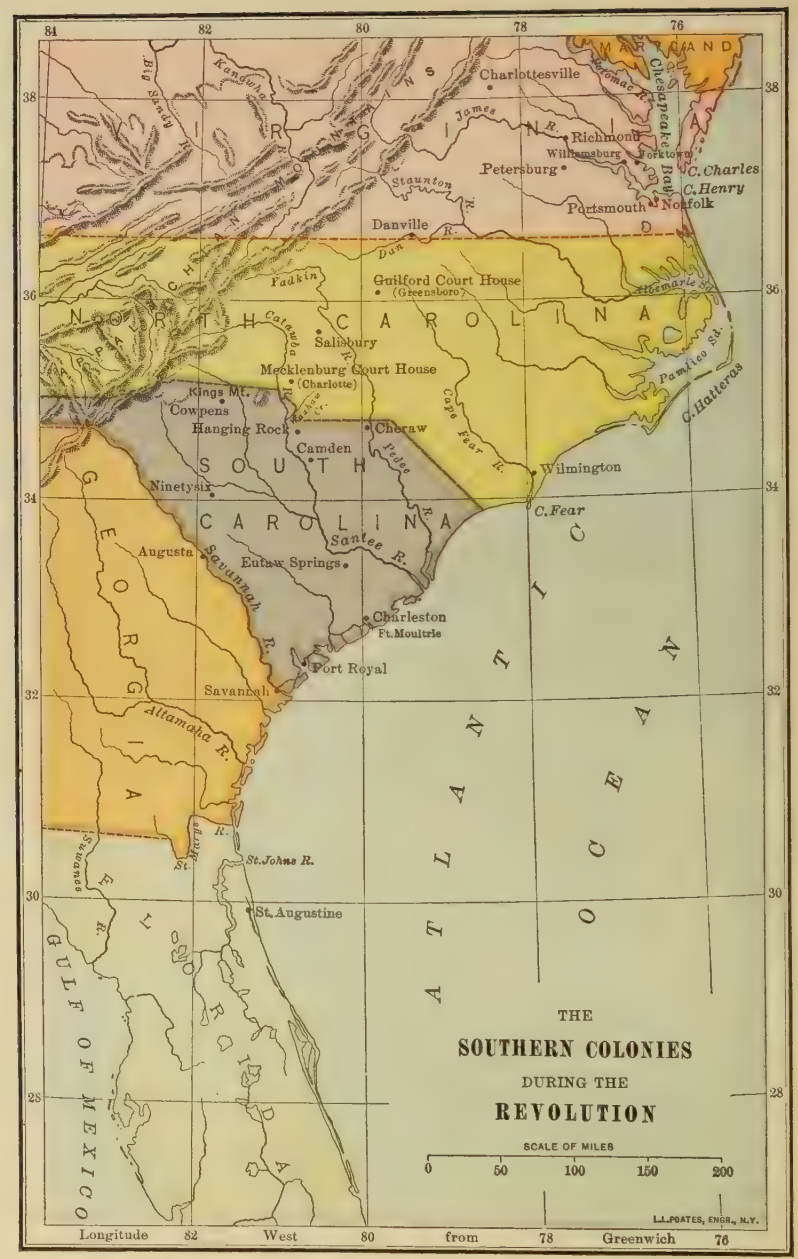
[1] One of these, under the command of the brutal Tarleton, at Waxhaw Creek (p. 152), engaged a body of Continental troops. The British gave no quarter, and after the Americans surrendered, mercilessly maimed and butchered the larger portion of them. "Tarleton's quarter" became, henceforth, a proverb in the South.

Battle of Camden (August 16).— General Gates, "the conqueror of Burgoyne," taking command of new troops in the South, marched to meet Cornwallis near Camden. Singularly, both generals had appointed the same time to make a night attack; so the advance guards of the two armies unexpectedly met in the woods. After some sharp skirmishing they waited for day. At dawn Cornwallis ordered a charge. The American militia, demoralized by the fighting in the night, fled at the first fire; but De Kalb, with the Continental regulars, stood firm. At last he fell, pierced with eleven wounds. His brave comrades for a time fought desperately over his body, but were overwhelmed by numbers. The army was so scattered that it could not be collected. A few of the officers met Gates eighty miles in the rear with no soldiers.

Partisan Corps.— The Carolinas contained many Tories, who helped to restore British rule. Many joined the British army; others organized companies that robbed and murdered their Whig neighbors. On the other hand, there were patriot bands which made their headquarters in swamps, and sallied out as occasion offered. These partisan corps kept the country in continual terror. Marion,[1] Sumter,[2] Pickens, and Henry Lee were noted patriot leaders. Their bands were strong enough to cut off British detachments, and even to capture small garri-

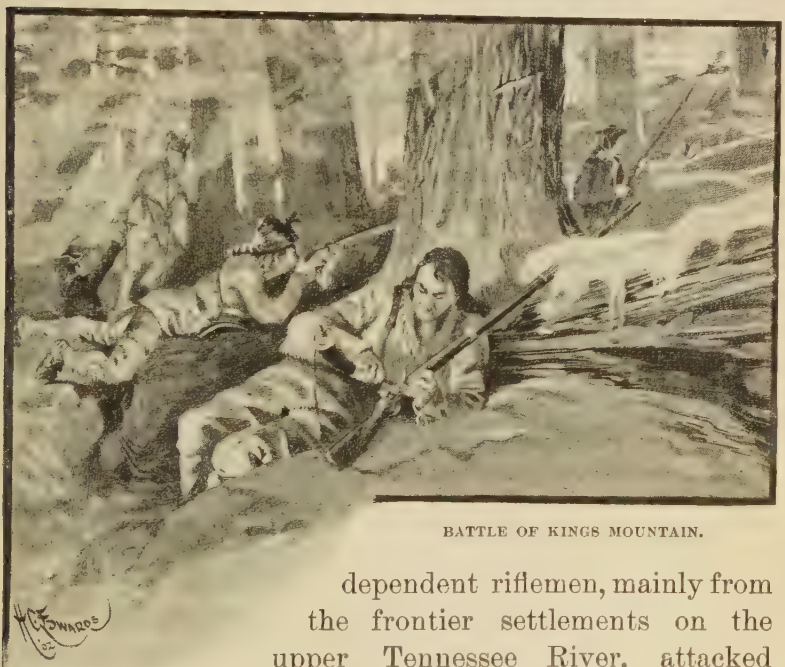
[1] A British officer, sent to negotiate concerning an exchange of prisoners, dined with Marion. The dinner consisted of roasted potatoes, served on pieces of bark. Surprised at this meager diet, he made some inquiries. He found that this was the patriots' customary fare; that the patriot general received no pay; and that this "Bayard of the South," as Marion was called, had then neither blanket nor hat. This devotion to liberty so affected the officer that he resigned his commission.

[2] At Hanging Rock (August 6) Sumter gained a victory over a strong body of British and Tories. He began the action with only two rounds of ammunition, but soon supplied himself from the fleeing Tories. Frequently, in these contests, a portion of the bands would go into a battle without guns, arming themselves with the muskets of their comrades as they fell.


THE
SOUTHERN COLONIES
DURING THE
REVOLUTION
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150 200
L.J. POATES, ENGR., N.Y.
Longitude 82 West 80 from 78 Greenwich 76
VIRGINIA
MARYLAND
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
EAST FLORIDA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
Charlottesville
Richmond
Williamsburg
Yorktown
Petersburg
Portsmouth
Norfolk
C. Charles
C. Henry
Danville
Guilford Court House
(Greensboro)
Salisbury
Mecklenburg Court House
(Charlotte)
Kings Mt.
Cowpens
Hanging Rock
Cheraw
Camden
Ninetysix
Wilmington
C. Fear
C. Hatteras
Augusta
Eutaw Springs
Charleston
Ft. Moultrie
Port Royal
Savannah
St. Augustine
St. Johns R.
Chesapeake Bay
Potomac R.
James R.
Staunton R.
Dan R.
Roanoke R.
Yadkin R.
Catawba R.
Pedee R.
Cape Fear R.
Santee R.
Savannah R.
Altamaha R.
St. Marys R.
St. Johns R.
Albemarle Sd.
Pamlico Sd.

sons. The cruel treatment which the Whigs received from the British drove many to this partisan warfare. The issue of the contest in the South was mainly decided by these bold citizen soldiers.

Kings Mountain (October 7).— At Kings Mountain, on the border of North and South Carolina, a large body of independent riflemen, mainly from the frontier settlements on the upper Tennessee River, attacked Ferguson, who had been sent out to rally the Tories of the neighborhood. Ferguson and about one third of his men were killed or severely wounded, and the remainder were taken prisoners.



BATTLE OF KINGS MOUNTAIN.

Continental Paper Money had now been issued by Congress to the amount of $200,000,000. At this time it was of so little value that $40 in bills was worth only $1 in specie. A pair of boots cost $600 in Continental cur-

rency. A soldier's pay for a month would hardly buy one meal for his family. To make the matter worse, the British flooded the country with counterfeits which could not be told from the genuine. Many persons refused to take Continental money. The difficulty of procuring supplies and the sufferings of the soldiers may readily be imagined.[1] The Pennsylvania regiments in camp at Morristown, claiming that their time had expired, demanded their discharge. At last, 1300 strong, they set out (January 1, 1781) for Philadelphia, to secure redress at the point of the bayonet; but they halted at Princeton, and a committee of the Congress succeeded in satisfying and disbanding them.

Arnold's Treason.— The British did little in the North, and the condition of Washington's army prevented his making any movement. Meanwhile, the cause of liberty suffered a terrible blow from one who had been its gallant defender. General Arnold, whose bravery at Quebec and Saratoga had awakened universal admiration, was stationed at Philadelphia while his wound was healing. He there married a Tory lady, and lived in great extravagance. In the exercise of his command, he made some enemies among the Whigs. Charges being preferred against him, he was convicted and sentenced to be reprimanded by the commander in chief. Washington performed the duty very gently; but Arnold resolved to gratify both his revenge and his love of money by betraying his country. Accordingly, he secured from Washington the command of West Point, at that time the most important post in America. He then proposed to Clinton to surrender it to the British. The offer was accepted, and Major André (an'drā) was appointed to confer with

[1] In this crisis Robert Morris sent 3,000,000 rations. Soldiers' relief associations, organized by the women of Philadelphia, made and sent clothing to the patriot army.

him. André ascended the Hudson on the British ship *Vulture*, and went ashore by night to meet the traitor (September 21). Morning dawned before they had completed their plans. Meantime, the *Vulture* was fired on, and dropped down the river. André, now left within the American lines, started for New York by land. He had reached Tarrytown in safety, when, at a sudden turn in the

TRIAL OF ANDRÉ.

road, his horse's reins were seized, and three men[1] sprang before him. They searched him, and, finding suspicious papers, carried him to the nearest American post. Arnold

[1] The names of these men were Paulding, Van Wart, and Williams. André offered them his horse, watch, purse, and any sum they might name, if they would release him. The patriots declared that they would not let him go for ten thousand guineas. Congress voted to each of them a silver medal and a pension for life.

was notified in time to make his escape;[1] but West Point was saved to the Americans. André was tried and hanged as a spy. The British made every effort to save him, and his fate awakened universal sympathy.

EVENTS OF 1781

Campaign in the South.— General Greene, who was appointed to succeed General Gates, found the American army in the South to consist of only 2000 half-clothed, half-starved men. A part of his force, under Morgan, was attacked (January 17) at COWPENS[2] by Tarleton. In the midst of the fight the Americans fell back to a better position. The British mistook this for a retreat, and were rushing on in confusion, when the Americans faced about, poured in a deadly fire at close quarters, captured half Tarleton's force, and drove the rest in utter rout. Tarleton fled to Cornwallis, who set out in hot haste, eager to punish the victors and recapture the prisoners. Morgan started for Virginia, and crossed the Catawba just before Cornwallis appeared in sight. Night came on, and with it rain, which raised the river so high as to keep the impatient Cornwallis waiting three days.

Greene's Retreat.— General Greene now joined Morgan,

[1] He received, as the reward of his treachery, £6315, a colonelcy in the British army, and the contempt of everybody. He was thoroughly despised by the British officers, and often insulted. A member of Parliament, about to address the House of Commons, happening, as he rose, to see Arnold in the gallery, said, pointing to the traitor, "Mr. Speaker, I will not speak while that man is in the house." When Talleyrand was about to come to America, he sought letters of introduction from Arnold, but received the reply, "I was born in America; I lived there to the prime of my life; but alas! I can call no man in America my friend."

[2] Colonel William A. Washington, in a personal combat in this battle, wounded Tarleton. Months afterward, the British officer, while conversing with Mrs. Jones, a witty American lady, sneeringly said, "That Colonel Washington is very illiterate; I am told that he can not write his name." "Ah, Colonel," replied she, "you bear evidence that he can make his mark."

and conducted the retreat. At the Yadkin, just as the Americans had reached the other side, it began to rain. When Cornwallis came up, the river was so swollen that he could not cross. However, he marched up the stream, effected a passage, and was soon in full pursuit again. Now came a race, on parallel roads, thirty miles a day, for the fords of the Dan. Greene reached them first, and Cornwallis gave up the chase.[1]

Campaign Closed.— Having rested his men, Greene again took the field, and at GUILFORD COURT HOUSE (March 15) he hazarded a battle. His forces were skillfully drawn up in three lines, which the British charged in succession. The Americans at last retired, but the British had bought their victory so dearly that Cornwallis also retreated. Greene again pursuing, Cornwallis shut himself up in Wilmington. Thereupon, Greene turned into South Carolina, and, with the aid of Marion, Sumter, Lee, and Pickens, nearly delivered this State and Georgia from British rule.[2] In the battle of EUTAW SPRINGS (September 8) the British were so crippled that they retired toward Charleston. Cornwallis, declining to follow Greene into South Carolina, had already gone north into Virginia, and though a fierce partisan warfare still distracted the country, this engagement closed the long contest in the South.

[1] During this retreat, General Greene, after a hard day's ride in the rain, alighted at the door of Mrs. Elizabeth Steele, in Salisbury, N. C., announcing himself as "fatigued, hungry, cold, and penniless." Quickly providing the honored guest with a warm supper before a cheerful fire, this patriotic woman brought forth two small bags of specie, her earnings for years. "Take these," she said; "you will want them, and I can do without them." "Never," says his biographer, "did relief come at a more needy moment; the hero resumed his dangerous journey that night with a lightened heart."

[2] Congress voted the highest honors to General Greene, who, by his prudence, wisdom, and valor, had, with such insignificant forces and miserable equipments, achieved so much for the cause of liberty. He never gained a decided victory, yet his defeats had all the effect of successes, and his very retreats strengthened the confidence of his men and weakened that of the enemy.

Campaign in Virginia.— The traitor Arnold, now zealous in the British cause, led an expedition into Virginia. He conducted the war with great brutality, burning private as well as public property. Lafayette was sent to check him, but with his small force could accomplish little. Cornwallis, arriving from the south, now took Arnold's place, and continued this marauding tour. Clinton, however, fearing Washington, who seemed to threaten New York, directed Cornwallis to keep near the seacoast so as to be ready to help him. Accordingly, Cornwallis, after having destroyed ten million dollars' worth of property, fortified himself at Yorktown.

Siege of Yorktown.— It was arranged to attack Cornwallis at this place[1] by the combined American and French forces. Washington, by a feint on New York, kept Clinton in the dark regarding his plans until he was far on his way south with his swift-marching army.[2] Late in September the joint forces, 16,000 strong,[3] took up their position before Yorktown. Batteries were opened[4] upon the city, and the British vessels in the harbor were fired by red-hot shells. Two redoubts were carried, one by the Americans, the other by the French.

[1] In finally determining upon this Yorktown campaign, Washington was influenced by Robert Morris, who obstinately refused to advance a dollar for any other enterprise, and who issued $1,400,000 of his notes to secure the capture of Cornwallis.

[2] Clinton sent Arnold on a pillaging tour into Connecticut in order to force Washington to return. He, however, was not to be diverted from his great enterprise, and left New England to take care of herself. New London was pillaged and burned, Arnold watching the fire from a church steeple. At Fort Griswold the commander and half the garrison were butchered.

[3] There were present about 5500 Continentals, 7000 French, and, in addition, about 3500 Virginia militia under Governor Nelson. A French fleet prevented Cornwallis from escaping by sea. The most hearty good will prevailed among the besiegers. The patriots slept in the open air, that their allies might use their tents.

[4] Governor Nelson commanded the battery that fired first upon the British. Cornwallis occupied the governor's fine stone mansion. The patriot pointed one of his heaviest guns toward his house, and ordered the gunner to fire upon it with vigor. The British could not make even the home of the noble Nelson a shield against him.

Cornwallis could see no hope of escape, and capitulated (October 19).[1]

The Effect.— Both parties felt that this surrender virtually ended the war. Joy pervaded every patriot heart.[2]

"PAST TWO O'CLOCK, AND CORNWALLIS IS TAKEN."

[1] The scene of the surrender was imposing. The army was drawn up in two lines, extending over a mile — the Americans on one side with General Washington at the head, and the French on the other with Count Rochambeau (ro shŏN bō'). The captive army, about 7000 men, marched slowly out between them. A prodigious crowd, anxious to see Cornwallis, had assembled; but the haughty general feigned illness, and sent his sword by a subordinate. Washington directed the sword to be delivered to General Lincoln, who, eighteen months before, had surrendered at Charleston.

[2] The news reached Philadelphia at the dead of night. The people were awakened by the watchman's cry, "Past two o'clock, and Cornwallis is taken." Lights flashed

All the hardships of the past were forgotten in the thought that America was free.

All hope of subduing America was now abandoned by the people of England, and they loudly demanded the removal of the ministers who still counseled war. The House of Commons voted that whoever advised the king to continue hostilities should be considered a public enemy.

RESULTS OF THE WAR

Difficulties of the Country and Army.— The situation of the United States at this time was perilous. Commerce had been destroyed by the war. The currency was worthless paper money. War had been the main business of the country for years, and all trade, manufactures, and agriculture had been neglected. Villages had been burned, ships destroyed, and crops laid waste. The British held Charleston and Savannah about a year, New York about two years, and forts in the Northwest several years, after the surrender at Yorktown. George III. was obstinate, and war might be resumed. Yet the American army was in almost open rebellion. The soldiers, afraid they should be disbanded and sent home without pay, petitioned Congress, but received no satisfaction. The treasury was empty. At this crisis, certain persons asked Washington to become king. The noble patriot spurned the proposal indignantly. A paper having been circulated advising violent measures, Washington addressed the officers, and besought them not to mar their fair record of patriotic service by any rash proceedings. His influence prevailed,

through the houses, and soon the streets were thronged with crowds eager to learn the glad news. Some were speechless with delight. Many wept, and the old doorkeeper of Congress died of joy. Congress met at an early hour, and that afternoon marched in solemn procession to church to return thanks to Almighty God.

both with the army and with Congress, and the difficulty was amicably settled.[1]

Peace.— A treaty was signed at Paris (September 3, 1783) acknowledging the independence of the United States. Soon afterwards the army was disbanded. Washington bade his officers an affecting farewell, and retired to Mount Vernon, followed by the thanksgiving of a grateful people.

The United States at first extended west only to the Mississippi, and south only to Florida. Spain, being allied with France, had been engaged in the war, and as a result regained Florida, which she had lost to the British twenty years before (p. 99). Hence our country was bounded west and south by Spanish territory, and north, as now, by British.

The Western Lands.— One result of the Revolution was to throw open for settlement the lands west of the Appalachian Mountains. The restriction of the British government in favor of the Indians (p. 100) being removed, settlers poured into what are now Kentucky and Tennessee, and a little later into the lands northwest of the Ohio River. The lands between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River were claimed, under "sea to sea" charters, by the six States of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. New York also claimed a large area, under treaties with the Indians, and Virginia had strengthened her claim by actual conquest (p. 149). Certain regions were claimed by two or three different States. But the States which had no Western claims urged that this

[1] The country was again indebted for the settlement of this difficulty to Robert Morris, Superintendent of Finance, who secured money to pay the army by the issue of his own personal notes.

THE UNITED STATES
SHOWING ORIGINAL EXTENT
AND
CESSIONS OF WESTERN LANDS
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300
Hudson Bay
Lake of the Woods
BRITISH AMERICA
(TO GREAT BRITAIN)
Lake Superior
Quebec
St. Lawrence R.
Ottawa R.
Montreal
Lake Michigan
L. Huron
L. Ontario
L. Erie
Portland
Boston
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
Pittsburg
Philadelphia
New York
Baltimore
Mount Vernon
VIRGINIA
Richmond
Norfolk
Ohio R.
St. Louis
Missouri R.
Mississippi R.
TENNESSEE
Ceded by North Carolina 1790
Admitted as State 1796
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
Wilmington
Charleston
Savannah
Ceded by Georgia 1802
Claimed by Spain until 1795
GEORGIA
Natchez
Mobile
New Orleans
Pensacola
TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES NORTHWEST OF THE OHIO RIVER
Cessions by Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York and Virginia
Boundary undefined
COUNTY OF KENTUCKY (Part of Virginia) KENTUCKY admitted as State 1792
LOUISIANA (TO SPAIN)
FLORIDA (TO SPAIN)
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAHAMAS (TO GR. BRIT.)
Longitude West from Greenwich
L.L.POATES, ENGR., N.Y.

land had been wrested from Great Britain through the joint efforts of all; and finally, to prevent further dispute, the seven land-claiming States at different times ceded their claims, or most of them, to Congress.[1]

For the government of the Territory Northwest of the Ohio River,[2] Congress passed the famous Ordinance of 1787. Besides providing for the territorial offices, etc., this ordinance forbade slavery in the Territory, and said that the land should in time be divided into three or five States.

Weakness of the Federal Government.— During the war, the thirteen States had agreed upon the Articles of Confederation, but this plan of government conferred little power on Congress. It could recommend, but not enforce; it could only advise action, leaving the States to do practically as they pleased. There were no United States courts, and no President. Bitter jealousy existed among the several States, both with regard to one another and with regard to a general government. The popular desire was to let each State remain independent, and have no strong national authority. But as each State made its own laws about commerce, and even levied duties on goods brought from other States, the trade of the country was greatly crippled. A heavy debt had been incurred

[1] New York was the first to present her western territory to the general government (1781). Virginia followed her example in 1784, donating the great Northwest Territory — a princely domain, which, if retained, would have made her the richest of the States; she reserved only 3,709,848 acres in Ohio, which she subsequently sold in small tracts to settlers. Massachusetts relinquished her claim in 1785, retaining a proprietary right over large tracts in New York. Connecticut in 1786 did similarly, and from the sale of her lands in Ohio (the "Western Reserve") laid the foundation of her school fund. North Carolina (1789), South Carolina (1787), and Georgia (1802) gave up their claims to territory from which have been carved the State of Tennessee and the northern part of Mississippi and Alabama.

[2] This territory embraced the present States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota.

by the war. Congress had no money, and could not levy taxes. It asked the States to pay, but they were too jealous of Congress to heed its requests. "We are," said Washington, "one nation to-day, and thirteen to-morrow." In Massachusetts large bodies of men assembled, refusing to pay their taxes and threatening to overturn the government. This insurrection, known as SHAYS'S REBELLION, from the name of its leader, was put down by State militia under General Lincoln (1787).

Constitution Adopted.— In these circumstances many of the best men of the land felt the need of a stronger national government. A convention was called in Philadelphia to revise the Articles of Confederation. Washington was chosen its president. After much deliberation,[1] an entirely new Constitution was adopted by the convention (September 17, 1787), to go into effect when it should be ratified by nine States.[2] Within a year it was ratified by

[1] Many of the provisions of the Constitution were the result of compromises. For instance, the delegates from large States insisted that the number of representatives sent by each State to Congress should depend on population, while the delegates from small States said that the number should be the same for all the States. This question was settled by a compromise providing that the States should have equal representation in the Senate, but representation according to population in the House of Representatives. By another compromise it was provided that in determining the population five slaves should count the same as three free persons. Some of the Southern States wished to import more slaves, for use on their plantations and also to increase their representation in Congress; and by another compromise it was provided that the slave trade should not be forbidden by Congress before the year 1808.

[2] The new Constitution met with the most violent opposition. The people were divided into two parties — the *Federalists* and the *Anti-Federalists*. The Federalists favored the Constitution and sought to increase the powers of the national government and thus strengthen the Union at home and abroad. The Anti-Federalists opposed the Constitution, were jealous of Congress, and feared too much national power, lest a monarchy should be established. The nation was agitated by the most earnest and thoughtful as well as the most virulent speeches on both sides. The question of ratification was decided in each State by a convention of delegates chosen by the people; and in several of these conventions the vote was very close. North Carolina and Rhode Island deferred action on the matter; the former ratified the Constitution in November, 1789, and Rhode Island in 1790. Early in 1789 presidential elections were held in each of the eleven States that had then adopted the Constitution, except New York, where the legislature had made no provision for the election. The ten States chose sixty-nine

eleven States, and in 1789 the new government went into operation.

During the next epoch we shall notice the growth of the country under the wise provisions of this Constitution.

ROOM IN INDEPENDENCE HALL WHERE THE CONSTITUTION WAS FRAMED.

Let us now consider the character of the national government which it provided for, and the division of powers between the nation and the States.

Plan of Government.—The government of the United States is divided into three branches. (1) The lawmaking branch consists of Congress.[1] (2) The law-enforcing branch

presidential electors. Under the Constitution as originally adopted, each elector voted for two persons. The candidate who received the highest number of votes (if the choice of a majority of the electors) was declared President, and the next highest Vice President. In this first election Washington received the highest number (69), and John Adams the next highest (34).

[1] The Congress is composed of two houses or bodies of men, called the Senate and the House of Representatives, both of which must vote in favor of a proposed law, or

consists of the President and many officials under him. (3) The law-explaining branch consists of the Supreme Court and various lower courts established by Congress. The congressmen and the President are elected directly or indirectly by the people, but the judges of the United States courts are appointed for life by the President, with the consent of the Senate.

Besides the United States Constitution for the whole country, there are as many State constitutions as there are States, each providing a plan of government for its State alone. State constitutions were adopted by the various States early in the Revolutionary War, and in fact the United States Constitution was modeled largely upon these earlier State constitutions. In every State government there is a lawmaking branch, or legislature, consisting of two houses; a law-enforcing branch, consisting of the governor and some other officials; and a law-explaining branch, consisting of several different kinds of courts. The members of the legislature, the governor, and in most States the judges of the State courts, are elected by the people. In minor details, however, the State constitutions vary greatly.

Thus the citizens of every State have to obey not only the laws made by Congress, but also those made by the State legislature. But the laws made by Congress must be in harmony with the United States Constitution; and the laws made by the legislature must be in harmony with the State constitution, and also must not conflict with the United States Constitution or the laws of Congress. The United States Constitution and the laws made under it are supreme; in case of dispute as to the

"bill," before it becomes a law. The old Continental Congress, under the Articles of Confederation, was composed of a single house.

interpretation of this Constitution, the United States Supreme Court is the final judge.

But although the United States government is supreme, far more laws are made by State legislatures than by Congress, and far more disputes are settled in State courts than in United States courts. The reason is that the United States Constitution gives Congress the right to make laws on only a few subjects; on all the rest each State makes its own laws as though it were an independent country. The legislatures make the laws on such subjects as marriage and divorce, wills, the descent of property, contracts, and many others, and for punishing nearly all crimes;[1] for the United States Constitution does not give Congress power to make laws on these subjects.[2] Also, local government, or the government of counties, cities, towns, etc., is entirely under the control of the legislatures. In all these matters, therefore, there are great differences between different States.[3]

COLLATERAL READINGS

War on the Ocean.— Fiske's *American Revolution*, vol. ii. pp. 116–130.

The Constitutional Convention.— Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. i. pp. 36–47.

[1] The political rights and duties of citizens depend more on State law than on United States law. It is the State which prescribes the qualifications of voters and creates most of the offices to be filled by popular election. The qualifications and choice of jurors in United States courts are governed by the laws of Congress, but those of jurors in the far more numerous State courts are governed by State law.

[2] Read the Constitution, in the appendix of this book; from Article I., Section VIII., make a list of the chief subjects on which Congress makes the law.

[3] This is the chief cause of the differences in the names and duties of county, town, and city offices. The powers of the local governments, however, are in all States distributed among different officers. The lawmakers (making laws or ordinances on subjects assigned to them by State law) are generally the county commissioners or board of supervisors in counties, the city council or board of aldermen in cities, and in some States the whole body of citizens in towns. The chief law-enforcing officers are the sheriff in counties, the mayor in cities, and the selectmen or supervisor in towns. There are local courts presided over by county and city judges, and by justices of the peace.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

EPOCH III. THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

1. Quarrels with the Mother Country.
   - a. Navigation Acts, etc.
   - b. Powers of the Royal Governors.

2. Causes of the American Revolution.
   1. Enforcement of Navigation Acts.
   2. Taxation without Representation.
      - a. Stamp Act.
      - b. Townshend Acts.
      - c. Mutiny Act.
   3. Boston Massacre.
   4. Boston Tea Party.
   5. Climax reached.

3. First Continental Congress (1774).

4. Events of 1775. (1st Year of War.)
   1. Battle of Lexington.
      - a. Description.
      - b. Effects.
   2. Battle of Bunker Hill.
      - a. Description.
      - b. Effects.
   3. Capture of Ticonderoga.
   4. Second Continental Congress.
   5. Condition of Washington's Army.
   6. Expedition against Canada.

5. Events of 1776. (2d Year of War.)
   1. Evacuation of Boston.
   2. Attack on Fort Moultrie.
   3. Declaration of Independence.
   4. Campaign near N. Y.
      - a. Battle of Long Island.
      - b. The Escape.
      - c. Washington's Retreat.
      - d. Flight through New Jersey.
   5. Robert Morris.
   6. Battle of Trenton.
      - a. Description.
      - b. Effects.

6. Events of 1777. (3d Year of War.)
   1. Battle of Princeton.
   2. Campaign in Penn.
      - a. Battle of Brandywine.
      - b. Battle of Germantown.
   3. Campaign in the North.
      - a. Plan.
      - b. Burgoyne's Invasion.
      - c. Burgoyne's Difficulties.
      - d. Battles of Saratoga.
        - a. *Description.*
        - b. *Effects.*

7. Events of 1778. (4th Year of War.)
   1. Winter in Valley Forge.
   2. Aid from France.
   3. Battle of Monmouth.
   4. Campaign in Rhode Island.
   5. Wyoming Massacre.

8. Events of 1779. (5th Year of War.)
   1. Campaign in the South.
      - a. British Conquest of Georgia.
      - b. British Attack on Charleston.
      - c. French-Am. Attack on Savannah.
   2. Campaign in the North.
      - a. In Connecticut.
      - b. Capture of Stony Point.
      - c. Sullivan's Expedition.
      - d. Clark's Conquest of the West.
   3. Naval Exploits.
      - a. Privateers.
      - b. Paul Jones.

9. Events of 1780. (6th Year of War.)
   1. Campaign in the South.
      - a. Capture of Charleston.
      - b. Battle of Camden.
      - c. Partisan Warfare — Marion, Sumter, Pickens, Lee, etc.
      - d. Kings Mountain.
   2. Continental Paper Money.
   3. Arnold's Treason.

10. Events of 1781. (7th Year of War.)
   1. Campaign in the South.
      - a. Battle of Cowpens.
      - b. Greene's Retreat.
      - c. Campaign Closed.
   2. Campaign in Virginia.
      - a. Ravages by Arnold and Cornwallis.
      - b. Siege of Yorktown.
      - c. Effect.

11. Results of the War.
   1. Difficulties of the Country and Army.
   2. Peace (1783).
   3. The Western Lands.
   4. Weakness of the Federal Government.
   5. Constitution Adopted.
      - a. The Convention.
      - b. Federalists and Anti-Federalists.
      - c. Ratification.
      - d. First Presidential Election.
      - e. Plan of Government.

EPOCH IV.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATES (TO 1861)

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION (1789–1797)[1]

Washington's Inauguration (April 30, 1789).—In the choice of the first President of the United States, all hearts turned instinctively to Washington. With deep regret he left his quiet home at Mount Vernon for the tumults of political life. His journey to New York was a continual ovation. Crowds of gayly dressed people bearing baskets and garlands of flowers, and hailing his appearance with

[1] George Washington was born February 22, 1732; died December 14, 1799. He was left fatherless at eleven years of age, and his education was directed by his mother, a woman of strong character, who kindly, but firmly, exacted implicit obedience. Of her Washington learned his first lessons in self-command. Although he was bashful and hesitating in his speech, his language was clear and manly. Having compiled a code of morals and good manners for his own use, he rigidly observed all its quaint and formal rules. Before his thirteenth year he had copied forms for all kinds of legal and mercantile papers. His manuscript schoolbooks, which still exist, are models of neatness and accuracy. His favorite amusements were of a military character; he made soldiers of his playmates, and officered all the mock parades. He was of gentle blood and high social rank. He inherited some wealth, and acquired more through marriage and fortunate investments. On his Potomac farms he had hundreds of slaves, and at his Mount Vernon home he was like the prince of a wide domain, free from dependence or restraint. He was fond of equipage and the appurtenances of high life, and although he always rode on horseback, his family had a "chariot and four," with "black postilions in scarlet and white livery." This generous style of living, added perhaps to his native reserve, exposed him to the charge of aristocratic feeling. While at home he spent much of his time in riding and hunting. He rose early, ate his breakfast of corn cake, honey, and tea, and then rode about his estates; his evenings he passed with his family around the blazing hearth, retiring between nine and ten. He loved to linger at the table, cracking nuts and relating his adventures. In personal appearance, Washington was over six feet in height, robust, graceful, and perfectly erect. His manner was formal and dignified. He was more solid than brilliant, and had more judgment than genius. He had great dread of public life,

shouts of joy, met him at every village. On the balcony of old Federal Hall, New York city, he took the oath to support the Constitution of the United States.

WASHINGTON'S ENTRY INTO NEW YORK.

Difficulties beset the new government on every hand. The treasury was empty, and the United States had no credit. The Indians were hostile. Pirates from the Barbary States attacked our ships, and American citizens were

and cared little for books. A consistent Christian, he was a vestryman and regular attendant of the Episcopal Church. A firm advocate of free institutions, he still believed in a strong government and strictly enforced laws. As President he carefully weighed his decisions; but, his policy once settled, he pursued it with steadiness and dignity, however great the opposition. As an officer he was brave, enterprising, and cautious. His campaigns were rarely startling, but always judicious. He was capable of great endurance. Calm in defeat, sober in victory, commanding at all times, and irresistible when aroused, he exercised equal authority over himself and his army. His last illness was brief, and his closing hours were marked by his usual calmness and dignity. Europe and America vied in tributes to his memory. Said Lord Brougham, "Until time shall be no more, a test of the progress which our race has made in wisdom and virtue will be derived from the veneration paid to the immortal name of Washington." Washington left no children. It has been beautifully said, "Providence left him childless that his country might call him Father."

languishing in the dungeons of Algiers. Spain refused us the navigation of the Mississippi. Great Britain had not yet condescended to send a minister to our government, and had made no treaty of commerce with us. We shall see how wisely Washington and his cabinet[1] met these difficulties.

Domestic Affairs.—*Finances.*— By the advice of Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, Congress agreed to assume the debts contracted by the States during the Revolution, and to pay the national debt in full, excepting the Continental money. To provide funds, taxes were levied on imported goods and the distillation of spirits. A mint and a national bank were established at Philadelphia. By these measures the credit of the United States was put upon a firm basis.[2]

The National Capital was at first New York. But at the second session of Congress the seat of government was transferred to Philadelphia. There it was to remain for ten years, and then (1800) be removed to the District of Columbia, a tract of land ten miles square ceded for this purpose by Maryland and Virginia.[3] Here a city was laid out in the midst of a wilderness, containing only here and

[1] Three executive departments were now established — the Department of Foreign Affairs (now the Department of State), the Department of the Treasury, and the Department of War. The heads of these departments (Thomas Jefferson, Alexander Hamilton, and General Henry Knox) were called Secretaries, and, with the Attorney-General (Edmund Randolph), formed the President's cabinet.

[2] The credit of these plans belongs to Hamilton. Daniel Webster said of him, "He smote the rock of the national resources, and abundant streams of revenue burst forth. He touched the dead corpse of public credit, and it sprang upon its feet."

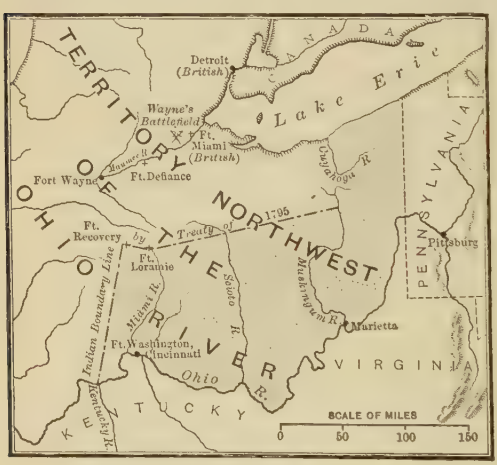
[3] The site for the new capital was not far from the geographical center of the inhabited part of the country. Its location, however, was the result of a political "deal" or bargain. At first only a minority in Congress favored a site so far south, and at the same time Congress seemed likely to vote against the assumption of the State debts. To secure a majority for assumption and for the southern location of the capital, the friends of each measure combined in voting for both. The District of Columbia now contains but 70 square miles. The 30 square miles lying south of the Potomac were receded to Virginia in 1846.

there a small cottage. The "Father of his Country" laid the corner stone of the Capitol (1793).

Whitney's Cotton Gin (1792).— The cotton gin, a machine for rapidly separating cotton from the seed, was invented by Eli Whitney, of Massachusetts.[1] This greatly reduced the cost of producing cotton, for it had formerly taken a day's work to clean a pound of the fiber. The cotton gin was destined to have a profound influence on our history.

Whisky Rebellion (1794).— Great opposition was made to the taxes levied by Congress. In western Pennsylvania the settlers agreed that they would pay no tax on whisky. The rioters were so numerous that 15,000 of the militia were ordered out to subdue them. Finding the government in earnest, the malcontents laid down their arms.

Indian Wars.— The Indians of the Northwest attacked the growing settlements in the Ohio valley. Two armies sent against the Indians were defeated. At last General Wayne—"Mad Anthony"— was put in command. Little Turtle, the Indian chief, now advised peace, declaring that the Americans had "a leader who never slept." But his counsel was rejected, and a desperate battle was fought on the Maumee (August 20,



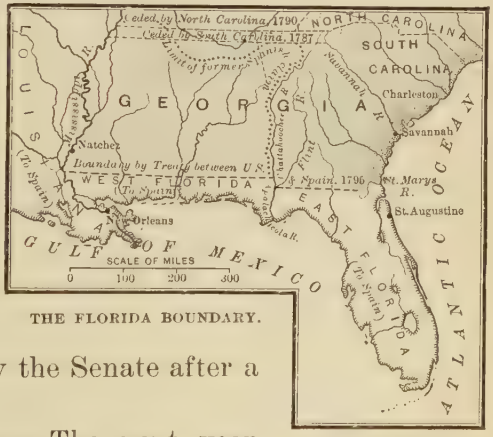
INDIAN WARS IN THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY.

[1] Whitney was at this time staying near Savannah, in Georgia, at the home of the widow of General Greene, the famous Revolutionary commander.

1794). Wayne routed the Indians, chased them a great distance, laid waste their towns for fifty miles, and compelled them to make a treaty[1] giving up about 25,000 square miles of land north of the Ohio.

New States.— Three new States were added to the original thirteen during this administration — Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee (p. 244).

Foreign Affairs.— *Great Britain.*— Complaints were made in England that debts could not be collected in America as guaranteed by the treaty of 1783. On the other hand, the Americans complained that the British armies had carried off their negroes, that posts were still held on the frontier, and that our seamen were impressed into the British navy. Finally, Chief Justice Jay was sent as envoy extraordinary to Great Britain. He negotiated a new treaty (1794), which was ratified by the Senate after a violent opposition.[2]



THE FLORIDA BOUNDARY.

Spain and Algiers.— The next year (1795), a treaty was made with Spain, securing to the United States the free navigation of the Mississippi, and fixing the boundary of Florida, which had previously

[1] He told them, it is said, that if they ever violated this agreement he would rise from his grave to fight them. He was long remembered by the Western Indians.

[2] This treaty enforced the payment of the English debts, but did not in turn forbid the impressment of American seamen. Its advocates were threatened with violence by angry mobs. Hamilton was stoned at a public meeting; insults were offered to the British minister; and Jay was burned in effigy.

been in dispute. About the same time, a treaty was concluded with Algiers, by which our captives were ransomed and the Mediterranean commerce was opened to American vessels.

France.— The Americans warmly sympathized with France, and when war broke out between that country and Great Britain, Washington had great difficulty in preserving neutrality. He saw that the true American policy was to keep free from European alliances. Genet (zh' nā'), the French minister, relying on the popular feeling, went so far as to fit out, in the ports of the United States, privateers to prey on British commerce. He also tried to arouse the people against the government. At length, at Washington's request, Genet was recalled. But, as we shall see, the difficulty did not end.

Political Parties.— During the discussion of these various questions, two parties had arisen. Jefferson and Madison became leaders of the Democratic-Republican party,— generally called the Republican party,— which opposed the United States Bank, the British treaty, and the assumption of the State debts. Hamilton and Adams were leaders of the Federal party, which supported the administration. The two parties differed radically in their interpretation of the Constitution. The Republicans were "strict constructionists"; that is, they denied to the United States government any power not clearly and expressly granted by the Constitution. For instance, they said the government had no right to establish a bank, because the Constitution nowhere says anything about this matter. The Federalists, on the other hand, were "liberal constructionists"; that is, they interpreted the Constitution liberally, claiming that certain general clauses in the Constitution warranted the exercise of a vast num-

ber of powers not definitely specified.[1] In 1793 Washington and Adams had been reëlected; but Washington now declined to serve a third term, and issued his famous *Farewell Address*. So close was the contest between the rival parties that Adams, the Federal candidate, was elected President by a majority of only three electoral votes over Jefferson, the Republican nominee, who became Vice President.[2]

ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION (1797–1801)[3]

Domestic Affairs.— *Alien and Sedition Laws.*— Owing to the violent denunciations of the government by the friends and emissaries of France, the Alien and Sedition

[1] The Federalists thought the general government should be made strong. The Republicans, fearing lest the republic should become a monarchy, and the President a king, opposed this idea and advocated State rights. In the election of 1796 the Republicans were accused of being friends of France, and the Federalists of being attached to Great Britain and its institutions. This Republican party was the forerunner of the present Democratic party, and must not be confounded with the present Republican party.

[2] Jefferson was elected Vice President because the Federal electors, who were in a majority, did not all write the same name in the second place on their ballots. There was no such thing as a party national convention for many years after this. In the election of 1796, however, it was generally understood who were the presidential candidates; but for the second place on the ticket each party scattered votes among several different men.

[3] John Adams was born 1735; died 1826. He was a member of the First and the Second Continental Congress, and nominated Washington as commander in chief. Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence, but Adams secured its adoption in a three-days debate. He was a tireless worker, and had the reputation of having the clearest head and firmest heart of any man in Congress. As President, he lost the reputation he had gained as Congressman. His enemies accused him of being a bad judge of men, of clinging to old unpopular notions, and of having little control over his temper. They also ridiculed his egotism, which they declared to be inordinate. He lived, however, to see the prejudice against his administration give place to a juster estimate of his great worth and exalted integrity. Adams and Jefferson were firm friends during the Revolution, but political strife alienated them. On their return to private life they became reconciled. They died on the same day — the fiftieth anniversary of American independence. Thus, by the passing away of these two remarkable men, was made memorable the 4th of July, 1826.

Laws were passed. Under them, the President could expel from the country any foreigner whom he deemed injurious to the United States; and any one libeling Congress, the President, or the government, could be fined or imprisoned. The Sedition Law was a most unpopular measure, and its enforcement excited the bitterest feeling. Both it and the Alien Law were soon repealed.

Foreign Affairs.—*France.*—French affairs early assumed a serious aspect. Our flag was insulted, our vessels were captured, and our envoys were refused audience by the French Directory unless a bribe should be paid.[1] The news of this insult aroused the nation, and the friends of France were silenced. Orders were issued to raise an army, of which Washington was appointed commander in chief.[2] Hostilities had commenced on the sea, when Napoleon became the First Consul of France, and the war was happily arrested.

Political Parties.—An intense party feeling prevailed during the entire administration. The unpopularity of the Alien and Sedition Laws reduced the vote for Adams and Pinckney, the Federal candidates. The Republican candidates, Jefferson and Burr, received the majority of votes; but, as each had the same number, the election went to the House of Representatives, which chose Jefferson for President, thus leaving Burr to be Vice President.

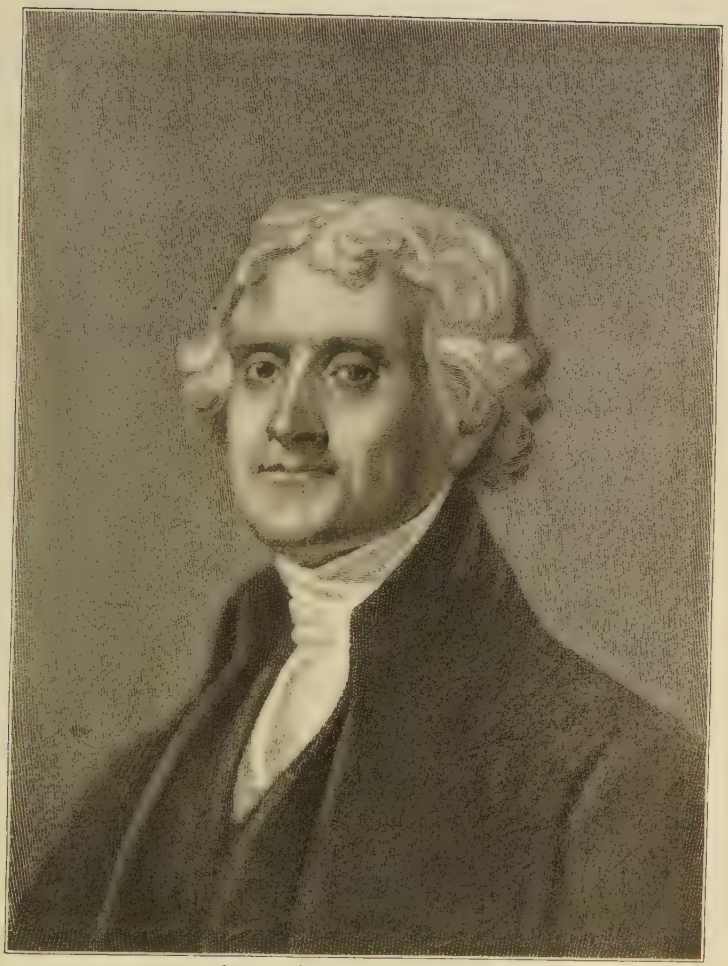
JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION (1801–1809)[3]

Purchase of Louisiana (1803).—The most important event of Jefferson's administration was the purchase of Louisiana

[1] Charles C. Pinckney, our minister to France, is reported to have replied to this insulting demand, "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute."

[2] It was at this time that the song *Hail Columbia* was written.

[3] Thomas Jefferson was born 1743; died 1826. "Of all the public men who have figured in the United States," says Parton, "he was incomparably the best scholar



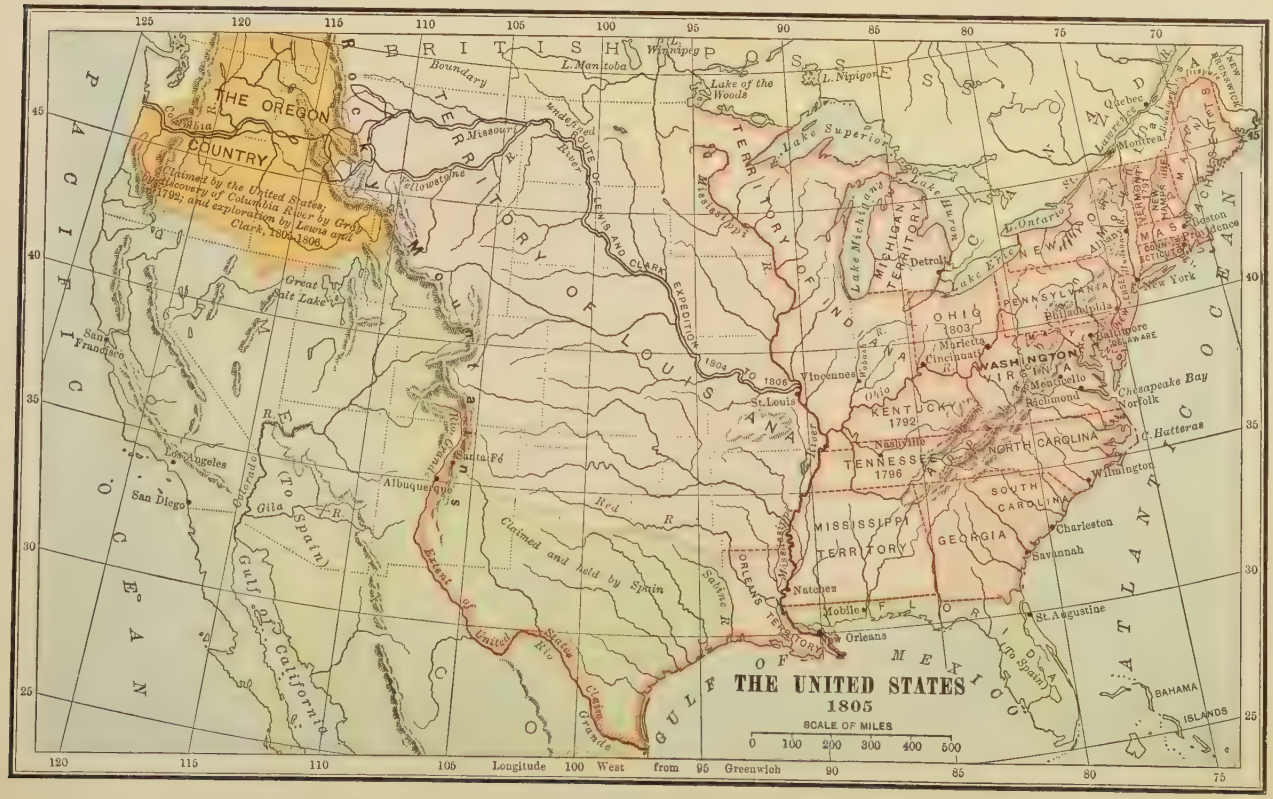
Th. Jefferson

from Napoleon.[1] By treaty with France, over one million square miles of land and the full possession of the Mississippi were obtained for $15,000,000.

Domestic Affairs.— *The Lewis and Clark Expedition* (1804–1806).— On Jefferson's suggestion, Congress provided for an expedition to explore the country west of the Mississippi, about which very little was then known. Under the command of Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, officers in the army, this exploring party followed the Missouri River to its source, descended the Columbia to the Pacific Ocean, and returned by the same route. They were the first white men to cross this part of the continent, and their adventures were full of interest.

and the most variously accomplished man." He was a bold horseman, a skillful hunter, an elegant penman, a fine violinist, a brilliant talker, a superior classical scholar, and was proficient in the modern languages. On account of his talents he was styled "the Sage of Monticello." That immortal document, the Declaration of Independence, was, with the exception of a few words, entirely his work. He was an ardent supporter of the doctrine of State rights, and led the opposition to the Federalists. After he became President, however, he found the difficulty of administering the government upon that theory. "The executive authority had to be stretched until it cracked, to cover the purchase of Louisiana"; and he became convinced on other occasions that the federal government, to use his own expression, must "show its teeth." Like Washington, he was of aristocratic birth, but his principles were intensely democratic. He hated ceremonies and titles; even "Mr." was distasteful to him. These traits were the more remarkable in one of his superior birth and education, and peculiarly endeared him to the common people. In his administration there were no more brilliant levees or courtly ceremonies, as in the days of Washington and Adams. Instead of delivering an address to Congress in person, as his predecessors did, he established the custom of sending a written message. He always dressed in plain clothes. The unostentatious example thus set by the nation's President was wise in its effects. Soon the public debt was diminished, the treasury was replenished, and the army and navy were reduced. A man of such marked character necessarily made bitter enemies, but Jefferson commanded the respect of his opponents, while the admiration of his friends was unbounded. The last seventeen years of his life were passed at Monticello, near his birthplace. He died poor in money, but rich in honor.

[1] This vast territory had been ceded to France by Spain in 1800. When news of the cession reached New Orleans, the officer in charge stopped the free navigation of the Mississippi by Americans. The citizens west of the Appalachians demanded the forcible seizure of New Orleans, but Jefferson instead sent to France an offer to buy the city and a small adjoining area. Napoleon thereupon offered to sell the entire province, and Jefferson accepted the opportunity, though he doubted his constitutional right to do so.


THE OREGON COUNTRY
Claimed by the United States, by Discovery of Columbia River by Gray, 1792; and exploration by Lewis and Clark, 1804-1806
BRITISH POSSESSIONS
TERRITORY OF LOUISIANA
LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION
1804
1806
INDIANA TERRITORY
MICHIGAN TERRITORY
OHIO
1803
KENTUCKY
1792
TENNESSEE
1796
MISSISSIPPI TERRITORY
ORLEANS TERRITORY
GEORGIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
WASHINGTON
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA
DELAWARE
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
RHODE ISLAND
CONNECTICUT
Claimed and held by Spain
Extent of United States Claim
Gulf of California
Gulf of Mexico
Pacific Ocean
Atlantic Ocean
Bahama Islands
THE UNITED STATES
1805
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude West from Greenwich

The Twelfth Amendment.— Previous to this time eleven amendments had been made to the Constitution, in the manner provided by that instrument; but they were all in the nature of guarantees against oppressive action by the national government. Now was made a change in the *plan of government* established by the Constitution. By the original method of voting prescribed for the presidential electors, no distinction was made between persons voted for as President and those really voted for as Vice President; and it was possible that by some mistake or intrigue the wrong man might be elected to the higher office. By the Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution, the electors vote separately for President and for Vice President, thus avoiding any possibility of such mischance.

Aaron Burr, the Vice President, was Alexander Hamilton's bitter rival, both in law and in politics, and at last challenged him to a duel. Hamilton accepted. The affair took place at Weehawken, N. J., on the west bank of the Hudson (July 11, 1804). Hamilton fell at the first fire, on the very spot where his eldest son had been killed shortly before in the same manner. His death produced the most profound sensation, and did much to put a stop to the practice of dueling, which was then common. In the presidential election of 1804, the Republican candidates, who were elected, were not Jefferson and Burr, but Jefferson and Clinton. Burr afterwards went west and organized an expedition with the avowed object of forming a settlement in northern Mexico. Being suspected, however, of a design to break up the Union and found a separate confederacy beyond the Appalachian Mountains, he was arrested and tried (1807) on a charge of treason.[1]

[1] While awaiting his trial Burr was committed to the common jail — a wretched fate for the man who once lacked but a single vote to make him President.

Although acquitted for want of proof, he yet became an outcast.

Fulton's Steamboat.— The year 1807 was made memorable by the first voyage from New York to Albany of Robert Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*. Thus the Hudson could boast of having the first successful steamboat in the world.[1]

New State admitted — Ohio (p. 244).

Foreign Affairs.— *War with Tripoli.*— The Barbary States, of which Tripoli is one, for many years sent out cruisers which captured vessels of all Christian nations, and held their crews as slaves until ransomed. The United States, like the European nations, was accustomed to pay annual tribute to these pirates to secure exemption from their attacks. The pasha of Tripoli became so haughty that he declared war (1801) against the United States. Jefferson sent a fleet which blockaded[2] the port and repeatedly bombarded the city of Tripoli. The frightened pasha was at last glad to make peace.

Great Britain and France.— During this time Great Britain and France were engaged in a desperate struggle. Great Britain tried to prevent trade with France, and, in turn, Napoleon forbade all commerce with Great Britain.

[1] Other inventors, both European and American, had experimented with steamboats before this time. John Fitch showed one on the Delaware in 1787, and in the summer of 1790 it made regular trips between Philadelphia and Trenton, though it failed to pay expenses. Oliver Evans at Philadelphia, William Longstreet on the Savannah River, and John Stevens at Hoboken, also made steamboats before 1807. But it was not till after the trip of the *Clermont* that the steamboat was regarded with favor and came into general use. The first steamboat to cross the Atlantic was the *Savannah*, in 1819; but she used sails as well as paddle wheels.

[2] During this blockade a valiant exploit was performed by Lieutenant Decatur. The frigate *Philadelphia* had unfortunately grounded and fallen into the enemy's hands. Concealing his men below, he entered the harbor with a small vessel, which he warped alongside the *Philadelphia*, in the character of a ship in distress. As the two vessels struck, the pirates first suspected his design. Instantly he leaped aboard with his men, swept the affrighted crew into the sea, set the ship on fire, and, amid a tremendous cannonade from the shore, escaped without losing a man.

As the United States was neutral, its ships did most of the carrying trade of Europe. Our vessels thus became the prey of both the hostile nations. Besides, Great Britain claimed the right of stopping American vessels on the high seas, to search for seamen of English birth[1] and press them into the British navy. The feeling, already deep, was intensified when the British frigate *Leopard*

IMPRESSING SEAMEN.

fired into the American frigate *Chesapeake*, off the coast of Virginia. The American vessel, being wholly unprepared for battle, soon struck her colors. Four of the crew, three being Americans by birth, were taken, on the pretense that they were deserters. Jefferson immediately ordered all British vessels of war to quit the waters of the

[1] The American doctrine was that a foreigner naturalized became an American citizen; the British, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman."

United States. Though Great Britain disavowed the act, reparation was tardy, and Congress passed an EMBARGO ACT, forbidding American vessels to sail for any foreign port. This was intended to protect our ships from capture, and to injure Great Britain and France by cutting off supplies from them. It was so injurious to ourselves, however, in ruining our commerce, that it was removed after about a year; but all intercourse with Great Britain or France was forbidden.

Political Parties.— While the country was in this feverish state, Jefferson's second term expired. Like Washington, he declined to serve a third term, and their example has been followed ever since. James Madison, the Republican candidate, who was in sympathy with Jefferson's views, was elected as his successor by a large majority. The Republicans generally favored a war with England, while the Federalists bitterly opposed the war policy.

COLLATERAL READINGS

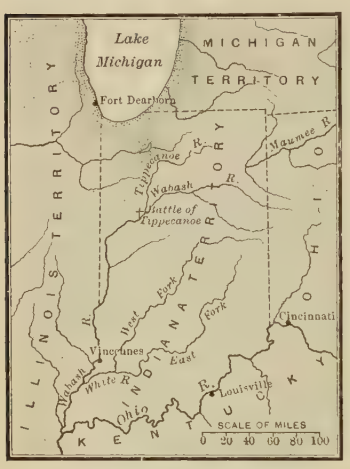
The Louisiana Purchase.—Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. ii. pp. 37–51.
The Embargo.— Schouler, vol. ii. pp. 159–165, 173–196.

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION (1809–1817) [1]

Domestic Affairs.— *Battle of Tippecanoe* (November 7, 1811).— British emissaries had been busy arousing the In-

[1] James Madison was born in Virginia in 1751; died 1836. In the Convention of 1787 he was one of the strongest advocates of the Constitution, and did much to secure its adoption. From his political principles he was obliged, though reluctantly, to oppose Washington's administration, which he did in a courteous and temperate manner. He led his party in Congress, where he remained till 1797. The next year he drafted the famous "Virginia Resolutions of 1798," enunciating the doctrine of State rights, which, with the accompanying "Report" in their defense (and the similar "Kentucky Resolutions" drafted by Jefferson), have been the great text-book of the Democratic party. He was Secretary of State to Jefferson. After his presidential services he retired from public station. Madison's success was not so much the result of a great

dians to war. Tecum'seh, a famous chief, seized the opportunity to form a confederacy of the Northwestern tribes. Governor Harrison, of Indiana Territory, who proceeded against them with a strong force, was attacked by night near the Tippecanoe. The Indians were led by Tecumseh's brother, "the Prophet," but they were routed with great slaughter.



VICINITY OF THE TIPPECANOE RIVER.

Foreign Affairs. — *Great Britain.*— This Indian war aroused the people of the West against England. Also, the impressment of our seamen and the capture of our ships continued. The British government went so far as to send war vessels into our waters to seize our ships as prizes. The American frigate *President*, having hailed the British sloop of war *Little Belt*, received a cannon shot in reply. The fire was returned, and the sloop was soon disabled; a civil answer was then received. The British government refusing to relinquish its offensive course, all hope of peace was abandoned. Finally (June 19, 1812), war was formally declared against Great Britain.

natural ability as of intense application and severe accuracy. His mind was strong, clear, and well balanced, and his memory was wonderful. Like John Quincy Adams, he had laid up a great store of learning, which he used in the most skillful manner. He always exhausted the subject upon which he spoke. "When he had finished, nothing remained to be said." His private character was spotless. His manner was simple, modest, and uniformly courteous to his opponents. He enjoyed wit and humor, and told a story admirably. His sunny temper remained with him to the last. Some friends coming to visit him during his final illness, he sank smilingly back on his couch, saying, "I always talk better when I *lie*." It has been said of him, "It was his rare good fortune to have a whole nation for his friends."

SECOND WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN, OR "WAR OF 1812" (1812–14)

1812

Surrender of Detroit (August 16, 1812).— As in the Revolutionary War, it was determined to invade Canada. General William Hull accordingly crossed over from Detroit and encamped on Canadian soil, but soon retreated.

WAR OF 1812.

The British under General Brock and the Indians under Tecumseh followed him to Detroit, and, landing, advanced at once to assault the fort. The garrison was in line, and the gunners were standing with lighted matches, awaiting the order to fire, when Hull ordered the white flag to be raised. Amid the tears of his men, it is said, and without even stipulating for the honors of war, he surrendered not only Detroit, with its garrison and stores, but the whole of Michigan Territory.

Battle of Queenstown Heights (October 13).— In the fall another attempt was made to invade Canada. A small body of soldiers was sent by General Van Rensselaer across the Niagara River, and drove the British from their position at Queenstown Heights. They were soon obliged to surrender, however, since the rest of the army, composed of State militia, denied the constitutional right of their commander to take them out of the State, and refused to follow their comrades to the Canadian shore.

CONSTITUTION AND GUERRIÈRE.

Naval Victories.— These signal disgraces by land were in striking contrast to our successes on the sea.

Constitution and Guerrière (August 19).— The fight off the Banks of Newfoundland between the American frigate *Constitution* (popularly called *Old Ironsides*) and the *Guerrière* (gār e ār′) is memorable. The latter vessel

opened fire first. Captain Isaac Hull[1] refused to answer until he had brought his ship into the exact position he desired, when he poured broadside after broadside into his antagonist, sweeping her deck, shattering her hull, and cutting her masts and rigging to pieces. The *Guerrière* soon became unmanageable, and was forced to surrender. She was so badly injured that she could not be brought into port; while the *Constitution*, in a few hours, was ready for another fight.

Frolic and Wasp (October 18).— The next noted achievement was the defeat of the British brig *Frolic* by the sloop of war *Wasp* off the coast of North Carolina. When the *Frolic* was boarded by her captors, her colors were still flying, there being no one to haul them down. The man at the helm was the only sailor left on deck unharmed.

Other victories followed. Privateers scoured every sea, inflicting great injury on the British commerce. During the year over 300 prizes were captured.

The Effect of these Naval Victories was to arouse enthusiasm and inspire confidence. Volunteer corps were rapidly formed. Madison was reëlected, thus stamping his war policy with the popular approval.

1813

Plan of the Campaign.— Three armies were raised for the campaign of 1813: (1) the Army of the North, under General Hampton, along Lake Champlain; (2) the Army of the Center, under General Dearborn, on the Niagara River; and (3) the Army of the West, under General Harrison, of Tippecanoe fame. All three were to invade

[1] Nephew of General Hull. His bravery retrieved the name from its disgrace.

Canada. Proctor was the British general, and Tecumseh had command of his Indian allies.[1]

The Armies of the Center and North did but little. General Dearborn attacked York (now Toronto), General Pike gallantly leading the assault.[2] The city was burned. Next, an expedition against Montreal was begun by this army, now under Wilkinson, and the army under Hampton; but the plan was abandoned, after a little fighting, before the junction of the two armies had been effected.

Army of the West.— A detachment of General Harrison's men was captured at Frenchtown, on the River Raisin,[3] by Proctor, who later besieged Harrison himself at Fort Meigs (mēgz). Repulsed here, Proctor stormed Fort Stephenson, garrisoned by only 160 men, under Major Croghan, and was again repulsed. As yet, however, the British held Michigan Territory and continued to threaten Ohio.

Perry's Victory (September 10) gave a new aspect to this year's campaign. When Captain Perry, then only twenty-seven years old, was assigned the command of the

[1] The great object of the Indians in battle was to get scalps, Proctor paying a regular bounty for every one. They were therefore loath to take prisoners.

[2] Unfortunately, in the moment of success the magazine blew up, making fearful havoc. Pike was mortally wounded, but lived to hear the shouts of his men as they hauled down the British ensign. At a sign from him the captured flag was placed under his head, when he died, as he had wished, "like Wolfe, in the arms of victory."

[3] This party was stationed on the Maumee, under General Winchester. Having learned that the people of Frenchtown feared an attack from the Indians, he allowed his military judgment to yield to his humanity, and marched to their relief. He defeated the enemy, but was soon attacked by a body of 1500 British and Indians under Proctor. Winchester was captured in the course of the battle, and at length his men surrendered under the solemn promise that their lives and property should be safe. Proctor, however, immediately returned to Malden with the British, leaving no guard over the American wounded. Thereupon, the Indians, maddened by liquor and the desire for revenge, mercilessly tomahawked many, set fire to the houses in which others lay, and carried the survivors to Detroit, where they were dragged through the streets and offered for sale to the inhabitants. Many of the women of that place gave for their ransom every article of value which they possessed. The troops were Kentuckians, and the war cry of their sons was henceforth "Remember the Raisin."

flotilla on Lake Erie, the British were undisputed masters of the lake, while his fleet was to be, in part, made out of the trees in the forest. By indefatigable exertion he got nine vessels, carrying fifty-four guns, ready for action, when the British fleet of six vessels and sixty-three guns bore down upon his squadron. Perry's flagship, the *Lawrence*,[1] engaged two of the heaviest vessels of the enemy, and fought them till but eight of his men were left.

PERRY CARRYING HIS FLAG TO THE NIAGARA.

He helped these to fire the last gun, and then, leaping into a boat, bore his flag to the *Niagara* unharmed, though the target for many shots from the British. Breaking through the enemy's line, and firing right and left, within fifteen minutes after he mounted the deck of the *Niagara* he had won the victory. Perry at once wrote to General Harrison, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours." This laconic dispatch produced intense excitement throughout the country.

[1] From its masthead floated a blue pennant bearing the words of the dying Lawrence: "Don't give up the ship." (See p. 191.)

Battle of the Thames.— Proctor and Tecumseh were at Malden with their motley array of British and Indians, 2000 strong, waiting to lay waste the frontier. Harrison, at Sandusky Bay, was nearly ready to invade Canada, and at the news of Perry's victory pushed across the lake. Landing at Malden, which he found deserted, Harrison hotly pursued the flying enemy, and overtook them on the River Thames. Having drawn up his troops, he ordered Colonel Johnson, with his Kentucky horsemen, to charge the British in front. Dashing through the forest, they broke the enemy's line, and, forming in their rear, prepared to pour in a deadly fire. The British surrendered, but Proctor escaped by the swiftness of his horse. Johnson then pushed forward to attack the Indians. In the heat of the action a bullet, fired by Johnson himself, struck Tecumseh. With his death the savages lost all hope, and fled in confusion.

Effect.— This victory, with Perry's, relieved Michigan Territory, gave us control of Lake Erie, and virtually decided the war. General Harrison returned amid the plaudits of the nation.

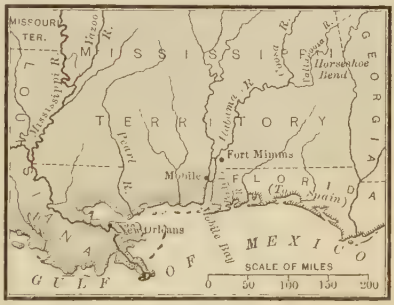
Naval Battles.— The American navy achieved some brilliant successes besides Perry's victory, but it was not uniformly victorious.

Chesapeake and Shannon (June 1).—While Captain Lawrence was refitting the *Chesapeake*[1] at Boston, a challenge was sent him to fight the *Shannon*, then lying off the harbor. Lawrence, although part of his crew were discharged, and the unpaid remainder were almost mutinous, consulted only his own heroic spirit, and put to sea. The action was brief. A hand grenade bursting in the *Chesapeake's* arm chest, the enemy took advantage of the confusion

[1] This was the ill-starred frigate which struck her flag to the *Leopard* (p. 182).

and boarded the vessel. A scene of carnage ensued. Lawrence, mortally wounded, was carried below. As he left the deck he exclaimed, "Don't give up the ship!" But the feeble crew were soon overpowered and the colors hauled down.

War with the Creeks.— Tecumseh had been (1811) among the Alabama Indians, and had aroused them to take up arms against the Americans. They accordingly formed a league (1813), and fell upon Fort Mimms, massacring the garrison and the defenseless women and children. Volunteers flocked in from all sides to avenge this horrid deed. Under General Jackson,[1] they drove the Indians from one place to another, until the latter took refuge on the Horseshoe Bend, where they fortified themselves for the last battle (March 27, 1814). The soldiers, with fixed bayonets, scaled their breastwork. The Creeks fought with the energy of despair, but 600 of their number were killed, and those who escaped were glad to make peace on any terms.



CREEK WAR.

Ravages on the Atlantic Coast.— In the spring the British began devastating the Southern coast.[2] Admiral Cockburn (ko'burn), especially, disgraced the British navy by

[1] An event occurred on Jackson's march which illustrates his iron will. For a long time his soldiers suffered extremely from famine, and at last they mutinied. General Jackson rode before the ranks. His left arm, shattered by a ball, was disabled, but in his right he held a musket. Sternly ordering the men back to their places, he declared he would shoot the first who advanced. No one stirred, and soon all returned to their duty.

[2] New England was spared because of a belief that the Northern States were unfriendly to the war, and would yet return to a political union with Great Britain.

conduct worse than that of Cornwallis in the Revolution. Along the Virginia and Carolina coast he burned bridges, farmhouses, and villages; robbed the inhabitants of their crops, stock, and slaves; plundered churches of their communion services; and murdered the sick in their beds.

1814

Battle of Lundys Lane.—An American army, under General Brown, crossed the Niagara River once more, and for the last time invaded Canada. Fort Erie having been taken, General Winfield Scott, leading the advance, defeated the British at CHIP'PEWA (July 5). A second engagement, one of the bloodiest battles of the war, was fought at LUNDYS LANE (July 25), within sound of Niagara Falls. The struggle lasted long after dark. The Americans, though greatly outnumbered, won the victory,[1] but soon after retreated.

Battle of Lake Champlain (September 11).—All but 3000 of the troops at Plattsburg had gone to reënforce General Brown. Learning this fact, Prevost (prĕh vo′), the commander of the British army in Canada, took 12,000 veteran soldiers who had served under Wellington, and marched against that place. As he advanced to the attack, the British fleet on Lake Champlain assailed the American squadron under Commodore Macdonough (-dŏn′o).[2] The attacking squadron was nearly annihilated. The little army in Plattsburg, by its vigorous defense,

[1] A battery, located on a height, was the key to the British position. Calling Colonel Miller to his side, just after nightfall, General Brown asked him if he could take it. "I'll try, sir," was the fearless reply. Heading his regiment, he steadily marched up the height and secured the coveted position. Three times the British rallied for its recapture, but as many times were hurled back. At midnight they retired from the field.

[2] One of his vessels he had built in twenty days, from trees growing on the bank of the lake.

prevented Prevost from crossing the Săr'anac River. When he found that his ships were lost, he fled precipitately, leaving his sick and wounded and large quantities of military stores.

Ravages on the Atlantic Coast.— The British blockade extended this year to the North. Commerce was so completely destroyed that the lamps in the lighthouses were extinguished as being of use only to the British. Several towns in Maine were captured. Stonington, Conn., was bombarded. Cockburn continued his depredations along the Chesapeake. General Ross marched to Washington (August 24) and burned the Capitol, the Congressional library, and other public buildings and records, with private dwellings and storehouses. He then sailed around by sea to attack Baltimore. The army, having disembarked below the city (September 12), moved against it by land, while the fleet bombarded Fort McHenry from the river. The troops, however, met with a determined resistance; and, as the fleet had made no impression on the fort,[1] soon retired to their ships.

Great excitement was produced by these events. Every seaport was fortified; the militia were organized, and citizens of all ranks labored with their own hands to throw up defenses. Bitter reproaches were cast upon the administration because of its mode of conducting the war. Delegates from New England States met at Hartford (December 15) in a convention which demanded that the defense of each State should be intrusted to the State government, asked for various amendments to the national Constitution, and hinted at a possible dissolution of the Union. The meeting was branded with odium by friends

[1] During the bombardment of Fort McHenry, Francis S. Key, an American detained on board a British vessel, wrote the song *The Star-Spangled Banner.*

of the administration, and "a Hartford Convention Federalist" was long a term of reproach.

Peace, as afterwards appeared, was made even before the Hartford convention adjourned. The treaty was signed at the city of Ghent, in Europe, December 24. Before the news of it reached this country, however, a terrible and, as it proved, unnecessary battle had been fought in the South.

Battle of New Orleans (January 8, 1815).— A powerful fleet and a force of 12,000 men, under General Pakenham, undertook the capture of New Orleans. General Jackson, anticipating this attempt, had thrown up intrenchments[1] several miles below the city. The British advanced steadily, in solid columns, heedless of the artillery fire which swept their ranks, until they came within range of the Kentucky and Tennessee riflemen, when they wavered. Their officers rallied them again and again. General Pakenham fell. Neither discipline nor bravery could prevail. General Lambert, who succeeded to the command, drew off his men in the night, hopelessly defeated, after a loss of over 2000; while the American loss was but eight killed and thirteen wounded.

Results of the War.— The treaty said nothing about impressment; but Great Britain impressed no more Americans. The national debt was $127,000,000, but within twenty years it was paid from the ordinary revenue. The United States had secured the respect of

[1] Jackson at first made his intrenchments, in part, of cotton bales, but a red-hot cannon ball having fired the cotton and scattered the burning fragments among the barrels of gunpowder, it was found necessary to remove the cotton entirely. The only defense of the Americans during the battle was a bank of earth five feet high, and a ditch in front. The British were tried and disciplined troops, while very few of the Americans had ever seen fighting. Besides, the British were nearly double their number. But our men were accustomed to the use of the rifle, and were the best marksmen in the world.

European nations,[1] since our navy had dared to meet, and often successfully, the greatest maritime power in the world. The impossibility of any foreign ruler gaining a permanent foothold on our territory was shown. The fruitless invasion of Canada by the militia, compared with the brave defense of their own territory by the same men, proved that our strength lay in defensive warfare.

Extensive manufactories had been established to supply the place of the British goods cut off by the blockade. This branch of industry continued to thrive after peace, though for a time depressed by the quantity of British goods thrown on the market. The immediate evils of the war were apparent: trade ruined, commerce gone, no specie to be seen,[2] and a general depression. Yet the wonderful resources of the country were shown by the rapidity with which it entered upon a new career of prosperity.

New States.—The war also had another effect: during the hard times which followed it, many people left their old homes and moved to the West. The population of Ohio and Louisiana (p. 244) was nearly doubled. During six years (1816–21), a new State was added to the Union each year, beginning with Indiana (p. 245).

Political Parties.—When Madison's term of office expired, the Federal party had been broken up by its opposition to the war. James Monroe, the presidential

[1] The Algerines had taken advantage of the war with Great Britain to renew their depredations on American commerce. Decatur (1815) was sent with a squadron to Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli. He obtained the liberation of the American prisoners, and full indemnity for all losses, with pledges for the future. The United States was the first nation effectually to resist the demands of the Barbary pirates for tribute.

[2] Instead of gold and silver money there were in circulation many banknotes. The national bank chartered by Congress (p. 171) had ceased to exist in 1811, and the banks at this time were all State banks; that is, each was chartered by some State. But people often refused to accept the notes issued by banks in distant States; for if a bank should fail its notes would be worthless. To provide banknotes that would circulate everywhere freely, Congress now chartered, for twenty years, a second national bank at Philadelphia, with power to establish branches at other places.

candidate of the Republican party, was elected by a large majority. Four years later he was reëlected, almost unanimously.

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION (1817–1825)[1]

Monroe's administration is known as "the era of good feeling." After the ravages of war the attention of all was turned to the development of the internal resources of the country and to the building up of its industries.

Domestic Affairs.— *New States* admitted — Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, and Missouri (p. 245).[2]

The Missouri Compromise.—When the admission of Missouri as a State was proposed, a violent discussion arose as to whether slavery should be allowed there.[3] At

[1] James Monroe was born 1758; died 1831. As a soldier under General Washington, he distinguished himself in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. Afterwards, he studied law, and entered political life. Having been sent by Washington as minister to France, he showed such marked sympathy with that country as to displease the President and his cabinet, who were just concluding a treaty with Great Britain, and wished to preserve a strictly neutral policy; he was therefore recalled. Under Jefferson, who was his warm friend, he was again sent to France (1803), when he secured the purchase of Louisiana. He is said always to have taken particular pride in this transaction. Soon after his inauguration as President, he visited all the military posts in the North and East, with a view to a thorough acquaintance with the capabilities of the country in the event of future hostilities. Monroe was a man more prudent than brilliant, who acted with a single eye to the welfare of his country. Jefferson said of him: "If his soul were turned inside out, not a spot would be found on it." Like that loved friend, he died "poor in money, but rich in honor"; and like him also, he passed away on the anniversary of our country's independence.

[2] The flag originally adopted by the Continental Congress had thirteen stars and thirteen stripes. After the admission of Vermont and Kentucky the number both of stars and of stripes was changed to fifteen. No further change was made for many years, and in the War of 1812 our armies fought under the flag of fifteen stars and fifteen stripes, though the number of States was then eighteen. In 1818, however, after the admission of several more new States, the number of stripes was restored to thirteen, and since then the number of stars has been the same as the number of States.

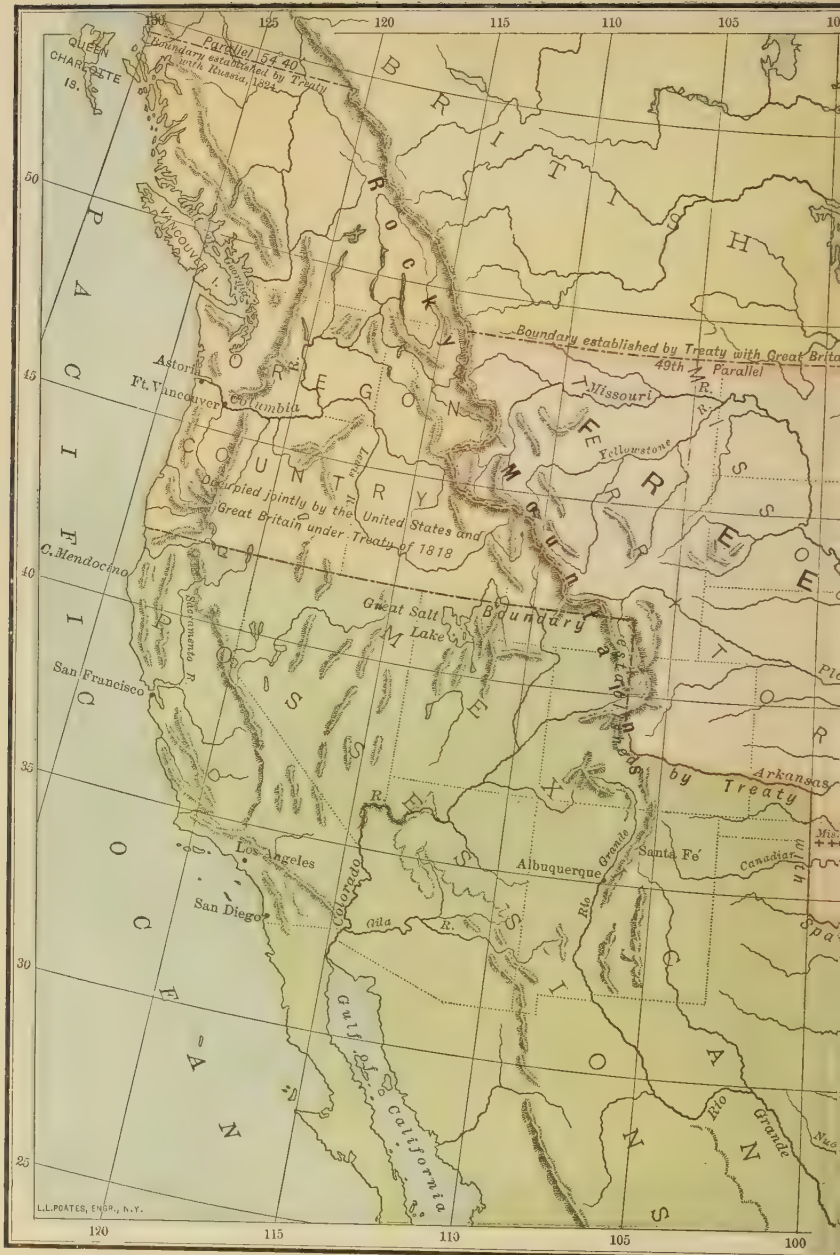
[3] The question of slavery was already one of vast importance. At first slaves were owned in the Northern as well as the Southern States. But in the North slave labor was unprofitable, and it had gradually died out; while in the South it was successful, and hence had steadily increased. Whitney's cotton gin had given a great impulse to cotton raising. Sugar and tobacco, as well as cotton, were cultivated by slave labor.

this time the Union consisted of twenty-two States, of which half — those north of the Ohio River and Mason and Dixon's Line — were free, and the other half were slave-holding. For many years such a balance in number of States, and hence in the United States Senate, was carefully maintained. Missouri was at last admitted (1821) as a slave State, under the Compromise of 1820,[1] providing that slavery should be forever prohibited in all the rest of the Louisiana purchase north of the parallel 36° 30′, the southern boundary of Missouri. At about the same time Maine was admitted as a free State.

LAFAYETTE VISITS THE UNITED STATES.

Lafayette's Visit to this country (1824–25) as "the nation's guest" was a joyous event. He traveled through

[1] This Missouri Compromise was ably supported (but not proposed) by Henry Clay.


QUEEN CHARLOTTE I.
Parallel 54° 40'
Boundary established by Treaty with Russia, 1824
BRITISH
ROCKY MOUNTAINS
PACIFIC OCEAN
Vancouver I.
Astoria
Ft. Vancouver
Columbia R.
OREGON COUNTRY
Occupied jointly by the United States and Great Britain under Treaty of 1818
Boundary established by Treaty with Great Britain
49th Parallel
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
Missouri
C. Mendocino
Great Salt Lake
Boundary claimed by Texas
Arkansas
by Treaty
San Francisco
Sacramento R.
Los Angeles
San Diego
Colorado R.
Albuquerque
Santa Fé
Canadian R.
Rio Grande
Gila R.
Gulf of California
Rio Grande
L.L.POATES, ENGR., N.Y.
125
120
115
110
105
50
45
40
35
30
25

HUDSON BAY
James Bay
Lake Winnipeg
Lake of the Woods
Lake Superior
L. Huron
L. Michigan
L. Erie
L. Ontario
St. Lawrence R.
Ottawa R.
Quebec
Montreal
Kingston
Ft. Snelling
Prairie du Chien
Chicago
Detroit
Cleveland
Buffalo
Rochester
Albany
Utica
Oswego
Boston
Portland
Bangor
Portsmouth
Providence
Hartford
New Haven
New York
Trenton
Philadelphia
Wilmington
Baltimore
Wilkesbarre
Pittsburg
Erie
Ft. Wayne
Natchez
Peoria
Springfield
Cincinnati
Columbus
Vincennes
Louisville
Evansville
St. Louis
Nashville
Knoxville
Lynchburg
Richmond
Norfolk
Raleigh
C. Hatteras
Wilmington
Charleston
Savannah
Augusta
Columbia
Memphis
Little Rock
Mobile
Pensacola
New Orleans
Jacksonville
St. Augustine
Ft. King
Okeechobee
The Everglades
Bahama Pt.
Great Bahama
Missouri R.
Mississippi R.
Ohio R.
Kansas R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Illinois R.
Wisconsin R.
Iowa R.
Tennessee R.
Cumberland R.
Yazoo R.
Alabama R.
Savannah R.
Pearl R.
Boundary between Free and Slave Territory
Compromise Line
1819
1820
1817
1812
1818
1816
1803
1845
1819
1821
1845
1836
1837
1845
1845
1845

each of the twenty-four States, and was everywhere welcomed with delight. His visit to the tomb of Washington was full of affectionate remembrance. He was carried home in a national vessel, the *Brandywine*, named in honor of the battle in which Lafayette first drew his sword in behalf of the colonies.

Foreign Affairs.— *Great Britain.*— When Louisiana was purchased by us it had no definite boundary on the north. Now, by treaty with Great Britain (1818), the parallel of 49° north latitude was agreed upon as the boundary, as far as the Rocky Mountains (pp. 179, 198). Beyond those mountains, all lands claimed by either country were to be open temporarily to citizens of both nations.

Florida.— By a treaty (1819) Spain ceded Florida to the United States, and the United States agreed to pay $5,000,000 worth of claims held by Americans against Spain. The same treaty also fixed our southwestern boundary as shown in the map on pages 198, 199. Thus Texas, which was in dispute, was given to Spain.

Monroe Doctrine.— In a message to Congress, President Monroe advocated a principle since famous as the Monroe Doctrine.[1] He declared that any attempt by a European nation to gain dominion in America would be considered by the United States as an unfriendly act.

Political Parties.— Practically all the people now belonged to the great Democratic-Republican party, which had twice so triumphantly elected Monroe. In the ab-

[1] At this time the South American colonies of Spain had just succeeded in establishing their independence, as the United States had before made itself independent of Great Britain. Their existence as nations had been recognized by the United States, but not by the governments of Europe. Spain asked several other countries in Europe to aid her in reconquering her lost colonies, and they seemed likely to do so. But Great Britain was opposed to such action; she proposed that the United States join her in warning the European countries to let South America alone. President Monroe preferred, however, to make his protest separately and in general terms.

sence of any party national convention, however, there were on election day (1824) four different candidates for President.[1] No one obtaining a majority of the electoral votes,[2] the election went to the House of Representatives, where John Quincy Adams, son of John Adams, was chosen.

COLLATERAL READINGS

Missouri Compromise.— Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. iii. pp. 155–167 (Northern view); Stephens's *War Between the States*, vol. ii. pp. 135–164 (Southern view).

Monroe Doctrine.— Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. iii. pp. 278, 281–293.

Lafayette's Visit.— Schouler, vol. iii. pp. 316–324.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION (1825–1829)[3]

Domestic Affairs.—This was a period of great national prosperity. The debt was diminishing at the rate of over $6,000,000 a year. A protective tariff, known as the "American System," was greatly increased (1828). It

[1] Beginning with this division of the party among different leaders, the people soon came to be grouped under two different party names. The National Republicans — later known as Whigs — acknowledged the leadership of J. Q. Adams and Henry Clay; with them were joined many who had formerly been Federalists. The main body of Republicans — henceforth known as Democrats — were led by Andrew Jackson, William H. Crawford, and John C. Calhoun (kal hoon'). The Whigs favored a *protective tariff*, for the purpose of encouraging home manufactures, and a general system of *internal improvements* by the federal government, such as improving the navigation of rivers, the building of canals and roads, and the dredging of harbors. Most of the Democrats, as strict constructionists, opposed these measures.

For a time after 1835 the Democrats were also called "Locofocos," because, at a meeting in Tammany Hall, New York (October 29), the lights, having been put out, were relighted with locofoco matches, which several persons, expecting such an event, had carried in their pockets. Matches had been invented only a short time before; hence their use in this case attracted much attention.

[2] Jackson received 99, Adams 84, Crawford 41, and Clay 37.

[3] John Quincy Adams was born in Massachusetts, 1767; died 1848. He was a man of learning, blameless reputation, and unquestioned patriotism, yet as President he was hardly more successful than his father. This was doubtless owing greatly to the fierce opposition which assailed him from the friends of disappointed candidates, who at once combined to weaken his measures and prevent his reëlection. Their candidate was Andrew Jackson, a man whose dashing boldness, energy, and decision attracted the common people and hid the more quiet virtues of Adams. To add to his perplexities, a majority of the House and nearly one half of the Senate favored

was popular in the East, but distasteful to the South.[1] During this term the Erie Canal was opened (1825), and the first railroad in the United States was completed (1826). The Erie Canal was built by the State of New York, under the leadership of Governor De Witt Clinton. It greatly lessened the cost of transporting goods to and from the West, and helped to make New York city the largest and most prosperous seaport on the Atlantic coast.

THE ERIE CANAL.

The building of canals and railroads marks a great change in our industrial history. At this time, and for many years thereafter, the usual means of travel on land was by stagecoach, and freight was carried mostly by water. The cost of carrying freight long distances on land, over ordinary roads, was often more than the freight was worth.

the Jackson party, the Vice President, John C. Calhoun, being most active in the opposition. To stem such a tide was a hopeless effort. Two years after the expiration of his term as President, Adams was returned to Congress, where he remained until his death, over sixteen years afterwards. Ten years of public service were thus rendered after he had passed his "threescore years and ten," and so great was his ability in debate at this extreme age, that he was called "the old man eloquent." Like his father, he was a wonderful worker, and his mind was a storehouse of facts. He lived economically, and left a large estate. He was the congressional advocate of anti-slavery principles, and a bitter opponent of secret societies. His fame increased with his age, and he died a trusted and revered champion of popular rights. He was seized with apoplexy while occupying his seat in Congress, after which he lingered two days in partial unconsciousness.

[1] The Southern States, devoted to agricultural pursuits, desired to have foreign goods brought to them as cheaply as possible; while the Eastern States, engaged in manufactures, wished to have foreign competition shut off by heavy duties.

Canals and railroads, as they steadily increased, not only made farming profitable in vast areas remote from navigable waters, but also gave a great impetus to manufactures for the growing home markets.

Political Parties.—Adams was a candidate for reëlection, but Andrew Jackson — the hero of New Orleans, and

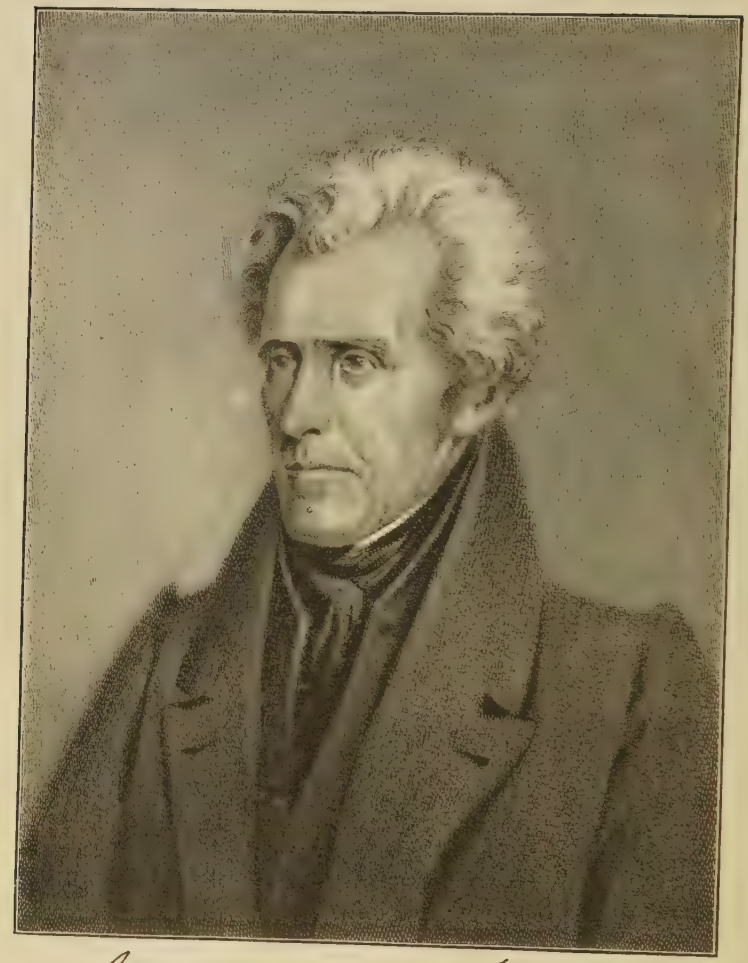
STAGECOACH.

the Democratic nominee — was chosen. The principle of a protective tariff was thus rejected by the people.

JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION (1829-1837)[1]

President Jackson began his administration with an inflexible honesty that delighted all, and with a sturdiness of purpose that amazed both friends and foes. In the

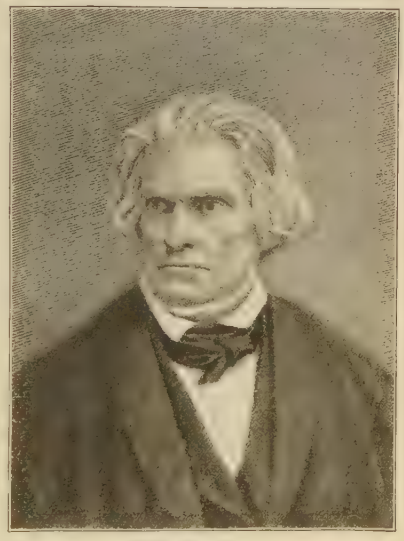
[1] Andrew Jackson was born 1767; died 1845. He was of Scotch-Irish descent. His father died before he was born, leaving his mother very poor. As a boy Andrew was brave and impetuous, passionately fond of athletic sports, but not at all devoted to books. His life was crowded with excitement and adventure. At thirteen, being captured by the British, he was ordered to clean the commander's boots. Showing the true American spirit in his refusal, he was sent to prison with a wound on head and arm. Here he contracted the smallpox, which kept him ill several months. His



Andrew Jackson

government offices he surrounded himself at once with his political friends, thus establishing the principle of "rotation in office."[1]

Domestic Affairs.— *Nullification* (1832).— South Carolina passed a Nullification ordinance declaring the tariff law "null and void," and that the State would secede from the Union if force should be employed to collect any revenue at Charleston. President Jackson acted with his accustomed promptness. He issued a proclamation announcing his determination to execute the laws, and ordered troops, under General Scott, to proceed to Charleston.[2]



JOHN C. CALHOUN.

mother effected his exchange, but soon afterwards she died of ship fever while caring for the imprisoned Americans at Charleston. Left destitute, young Jackson tried various employments, but finally settled down to the law, removed to Tennessee, and in 1796 was elected to Congress. His imperious temper and inflexible will supplied him with frequent quarrels. He first distinguished himself as a military officer in the war against the Creek Indians. His dashing successes in the War of 1812 completed his reputation and ultimately won him the presidency. His nomination was at first received in many States with ridicule, as, whatever might be his military prowess, neither his temper nor his ability recommended him as a statesman. His reëlection, however, proved his popular success as President. His chief intellectual gifts were energy and intuitive judgment. He was thoroughly honest, intensely warm-hearted, and had an instinctive horror of debt. His moral courage was as great as his physical, and his patriotism was undoubted. He died at the "Hermitage," his home near Nashville, Tennessee.

[1] "During the first year of his administration there were nearly seven hundred removals from office, not including subordinate clerks. During the forty years preceding there had been but seventy-four."

[2] John C. Calhoun and Robert Y. Hayne were the prominent advocates of the doctrine of "State rights," declaring that a State could set aside an act of Congress

In the meantime Henry Clay's celebrated Compromise Bill was adopted by the Senate. This measure, offering a gradual reduction of the tariff, was accepted by both sides, and quiet was restored.[1]

Bank of the United States.— During his first term Jackson vetoed a bill renewing the charter of the United States Bank. After his reëlection[2] by an overwhelming majority, considering his policy sustained by the people, he ordered (1833) the public money to be removed from its vaults. Jackson's measure excited violent clamor, but he was sustained by the Democratic majority in the House of Representatives. The money was gradually withdrawn from the United States Bank to pay the expenses of the government, and no new deposits were made there.

Speculation.— When the public money, which was withheld from the Bank of the United States, was deposited in the local State banks, it became easy to borrow money,

which it deemed unconstitutional. During this struggle occurred the memorable debate in the Senate between Webster and Hayne, in which Webster, opposing secession, pronounced those words familiar to every schoolboy, "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable." Calhoun's public life extended over forty years. He was one of the most celebrated statesmen of his time. As a speaker he was noted for forcible logic, clear demonstration, and earnest manner. He rejected ornament, and rarely used illustration. Webster, his political antagonist, said of him: "He had the indisputable basis of all high character — unspotted integrity and honor unimpeached. Nothing groveling, low, or meanly selfish came near his head or his heart."

[1] Alexander H. Stephens says: "To do this, Clay had to break from his old political friends, while he was offering up the darling system of his heart on the altar of his country. No one can deny that he was a patriot, every inch of him. When he was importuned not to take the course he did, and assured that it would lessen his chances for the presidency, he nobly replied, 'I would rather be right than be President' — a sentiment worthy to be the motto of every young patriot in our land."

[2] The election of 1832 is notable as being the first in which candidates for President and Vice President were nominated by national conventions of the respective parties. Before this time nominations had been made sometimes by State legislatures, sometimes by a "congressional caucus" — composed of the congressmen belonging to the party. The first national convention was held by the Antimasonic party, which cut a prominent figure in New York and the neighboring States for several years. It opposed the election of any freemason to public office, claiming that masons considered duty to the order superior to duty to their country.

for the banks now issued vast amounts of their own bank-notes. Speculation extended to every branch of trade, but especially to Western lands. New cities were laid out in the wilderness. Fabulous prices were charged for building lots which existed only on paper. Scarcely a man could be found who had not his pet project for realizing a fortune. The bitter fruits of these hothouse schemes were gathered in Van Buren's time.

Indian Troubles.—Owing to the pressure of white settlers in the middle West, one Indian tribe after another had been persuaded or compelled to sell its lands and move west of the Mississippi. This policy of dealing with all the Indians east of the river was advised by President Monroe, and was followed by Adams and Jackson. Most of them were removed peaceably, or with only threats of war; but in two cases the removal caused bloodshed. (1) The Black Hawk War broke out in the region near the Mississippi, in northern Illinois and what is now Wisconsin (1832). The Sacs and Foxes had some time before sold their lands to the United States, but when the settlers came to take possession, the Indians refused to leave. After some skirmishes they were driven off, and their leader, the famous Black Hawk, was captured. (2) The Florida War (1835) with the Sem'inoles grew out of an attempt to remove them to their new homes west of the Mississippi, in accordance with a treaty.[1] After several battles the Indians retreated to the Everglades of southern

[1] Osceo'la, the chief of the Seminoles, was so defiant that General Thompson, the government agent, put him in irons. Dissembling his wrath, Osceola consented to the treaty. But no sooner was he released than, burning with indignation, he plotted a general massacre of the whites. General Thompson was shot and scalped while sitting at dinner, under the very guns of Fort King. The same day Major Dade, with over 100 men, was waylaid near the Wi'hoo Swamp. All but four were killed, and these subsequently died of their wounds. Osceola, in October, 1837, visited the camp of General Jessup under a flag of truce. He was there seized and sent to Fort Moultrie, where he died the following year.

Florida, where they hoped to find a safe retreat in the tangled swamps. They were, however, pursued into their hiding places by Colonel Taylor, and beaten in a hard-fought battle (Okecho'bee, December 25, 1837), but were not fully subdued until 1842.

New States.— Two States were admitted in this administration — Arkansas and Michigan (pp. 245, 246).

Foreign Affairs.— *France.*— The French government had promised to pay $5,000,000 for damages to our commerce during Napoleon's wars. This agreement not being kept, Jackson urged Congress to make reprisals on French ships. The mediation of Great Britain secured the payment of the debt by France and thus averted the threatened war.

Political Parties.— The Democratic candidate, Martin Van Bu'ren, was chosen President.[1] The people thus supported the policy of Jackson — no United States Bank and no protective tariff. General Harrison was the Whig candidate.

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION (1837–1841)[2]

Domestic Affairs.— *Crisis of* 1837.—The financial storm which had been gathering through the preceding ad-

[1] No candidate for Vice President received a majority of the electoral votes, so the election went to the Senate. Colonel R. M. Johnson was chosen.

[2] Martin Van Buren was born 1782; died 1862. He early took an interest in politics, and in 1818 started a new organization of the Democratic party of New York, his native State, which had the power for over twenty years. In 1831 he was appointed minister to Great Britain, whither he went in September; but when the nomination came before the Senate in December, it was rejected, on the ground that he had sided with Great Britain against the United States on certain matters, and had carried party contests and their results into foreign negotiations. His party regarded this as extreme political persecution, and the next year elected him to the vice-presidency. He thus became the head of the Senate which a few months before had condemned him, and where he now performed his duties with "dignity, courtesy, and impartiality." As President, Van Buren was the subject of much partisan censure. The country

ministration now burst with terrible fury. The banks contracted their circulation and called in their loans.[1] Business men could not pay their debts. Failures were everyday occurrences, and the losses in New York city alone, during March and April, exceeded $100,000,000. Property of all kinds declined in value. Eight of the States failed, wholly or in part, to meet their financial obligations. Even the United States government could not pay its debts when due. Consternation seized upon all classes. Confidence was destroyed and trade stood still.

The Subtreasury Bill.— Van Buren's favorite plan was to keep the public money in the United States treasury at Washington, and in subtreasuries at a few other cities. The Subtreasury Bill, however, was enacted only at the close of his term. It was repealed during Tyler's administration, but reënacted under Polk, and is the system in force at the present time.

Foreign Affairs.— *The Canadian "Patriot War"* (1837–1838).— A Canadian rebellion against Great Britain, at this time, stirred the sympathies of the American people. Meetings were held, volunteers offered, and arms contributed. The President issued a proclamation refusing

was passing through a peculiar crisis, and his was a difficult position to fill with satisfaction to all. That he pleased his own party is proved from the fact of his renomination in 1840 against Harrison. In 1848 he became the presidential candidate of the Free-soil party, a new party advocating antislavery principles. After this he retired to his estate in Kinderhook, N. Y., where he died.

[1] The direct causes of this were as follows: (1) Jackson issued the "specie circular" near the close of his last term, directing that payments for public lands should be made in specie (gold and silver). The specie was soon gathered into the United States treasury. (2) Congress ordered that the surplus public money, amounting to about $28,000,000, should be withdrawn from the local banks and distributed among the States. The banks could not meet the demand. (3) During the season of high prices and speculation, when fortunes were easily made, there had been heavy importations of European goods, which had to be paid for in gold and silver. Thus the country was drained of its specie. (4) A terrible fire in the city of New York on the night of December 16, 1835, burned 600 valuable stores and property to the amount of $20,000,000.

the protection of the United States government to any who should aid the Canadians, and sent General Scott to the frontier to preserve the peace.[1]

Political Parties.— The financial difficulties caused a change in political feeling and for a time weakened the confidence of the people in the wisdom of the Democratic policy. Van Buren was nominated by the Democrats for a second term; but General Harrison, the hero of Tippecanoe, the Whig nominee, was chosen President by an immense majority.

COLLATERAL READING

The Crisis of 1837.—Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. iv. pp. 257–264, 276–281.

HARRISON AND TYLER'S ADMINISTRATION (1841–1845)[2]

General Harrison had scarcely entered upon the duties of his office, and selected his cabinet, when he died. John

[1] A body of Americans, having taken possession of Navy Island, in Niagara River, had hired a steamer called the *Caroline* to convey provisions and war materials for an expedition to Canada. On the night of December 29, 1837, a party of British troops attempted to seize this vessel. A desperate fight ensued; but the ship was at last set on fire and left to drift over Niagara Falls. This event caused great excitement at the time.

[2] William Henry Harrison was born 1773; died 1841. He distinguished himself during the War of 1812, especially in the battle of the Thames. His military reputation made him available as a presidential candidate. His character was unimpeachable, and the chief slur cast upon him by his opponents was that he had lived in a "log cabin," with nothing to drink but "hard cider." His friends turned this to good account. The campaign was noted for immense mass meetings, long processions, song-singing, and great enthusiasm. "Hard cider" became a party watchword, and the "log cabin" a regular feature in the popular parades. Harrison was elected by a large majority, and great hopes were entertained of his administration. Though advanced in years, he gave promise of endurance. But "he was beset by office-seekers; he was anxious to gratify the numerous friends and supporters who flocked about him; he gave himself incessantly to public business; and at the close of the month he was on a sick bed." The illness soon proved to be fatal.

John Tyler was born 1790; died 1862. He was in early life a great admirer of Henry Clay, and is said to have wept with sorrow when the Whigs in convention rejected his favorite candidate for the presidency and selected Harrison. He was

Tyler, the Vice President, in accordance with the Constitution of the United States, became President. This was the first case of the kind in our history. Tyler was elected as a Whig, but did not carry out the favorite measures of his party.

Domestic Affairs.— *United States Bank.*— Under the lead of Clay, the Whig majority in Congress passed a charter for a "Bank of the United States." This Tyler vetoed. A second bill, for a similar purpose, met the same fate. These successive vetoes caused great anger and excitement among the Whigs.

Dorr's Rebellion, a local disturbance in Rhode Island, grew out of efforts to secure a more liberal constitution in that State. The charter granted by Charles II. was still in force. It limited the right of suffrage to those holding a certain amount of property, and fixed very unequally the number of deputies in the Assembly from the different towns. In 1841 a new State constitution was adopted, the vote being taken in mass conventions, and not by the legal voters according to the charter. Under this constitution T. W. Dorr was elected governor. The old government still went on, treating his election as illegal. He attempted to seize the State arsenal, but, finding it held by the militia, gave up the attempt. Dorr was afterwards arrested, convicted of treason, and sentenced to imprisonment for life, but was finally pardoned. Meanwhile, a

nominated Vice President by a unanimous vote, and was a favorite with his party. In the popular refrain "Tippecanoe and Tyler too" the people sang praises to him as heartily as to Harrison himself. Tyler's administration was full of quarrel. Clay was determined to reduce the President to the ranks; Tyler answered with vetoes. The Whigs denounced him as a renegade, to which he replied, with truth, that he had never indorsed their measures, either before or during the presidential canvass. In 1861 he became the presiding officer of the peace convention in Washington. All efforts at reconciliation proving futile, he renounced his allegiance to the United States, and followed the Confederate fortunes. He died in Richmond, where he was in attendance as a member of the Confederate Congress.

liberal constitution, which had been legally adopted, went into operation (1843).

New York Anti-Rent Difficulties (1844).— The tenants on some of the old "patroon estates" in New York refused to pay the rent. It was very light,[1] but was considered illegal. The anti-renters, as they were called, assumed the disguise of Indians, tarred and feathered those tenants who paid their rents, and even killed officers who served warrants upon them. The disturbances were suppressed only by a military force (1846).

MORSE AND HIS TELEGRAPH.

The Magnetic Telegraph was invented by Samuel F. B. Morse. The first line was built between Baltimore and Washington (1844), with $30,000 appropriated by Congress. On its completion, the first official message sent was, "What hath God wrought!" The introduction of the telegraph was the greatest event of this administration.

The Mormons.— A religious sect called Mormons had settled at Nauvoo', Ill. (1840). Here they built a city of several thousand inhabitants, and laid the foundation of a costly temple. Having incurred the enmity of the people about them, their leader, Joseph Smith, was killed by a mob (1844).[2] The next year the State government re-

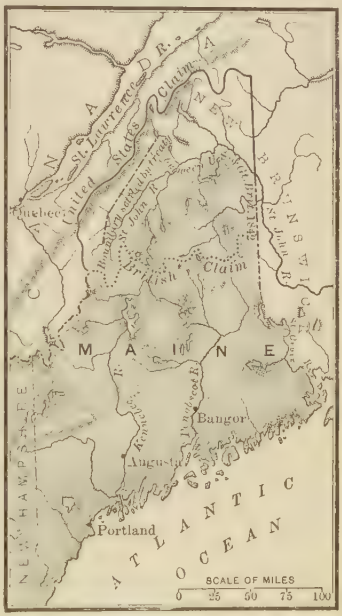
[1] The rent consisted of only "a few bushels of wheat, three or four fat fowls, and a day's work with horses and wagon, per year."

[2] Joseph Smith, while living at Palmyra, N. Y., claimed to have had a revelation by which he was directed to a spot where he found buried a series of golden plates

pealed the charter of the city, which was then partly abandoned. Finally, the city was bombarded for three days, when the remaining inhabitants also agreed to leave. The Mormons went to Iowa (1846), and then to Utah.

New State admitted.—Florida (p. 246).

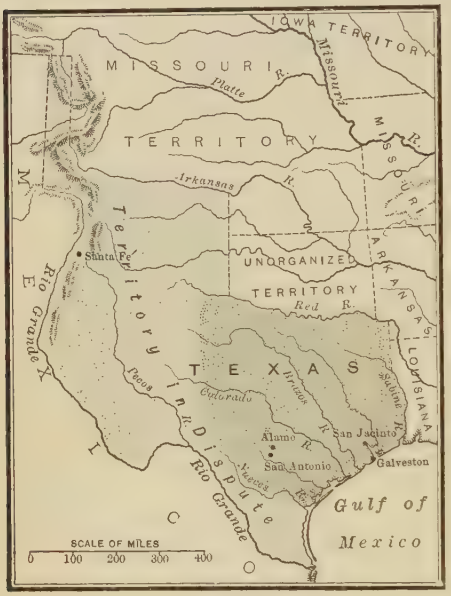
Foreign Affairs.— *The Northeast Boundary*, between Maine and New Brunswick, had never been settled. The people of that region at one time threatened to take up arms to support their respective claims, and there was great peril of a war with Great Britain. At last the difficulty was adjusted by what is known as the Ash'burton treaty (1842), which was negotiated between the United States and Great Britain, Daniel Webster and Lord Ashburton acting as commissioners.



THE NORTH EAST BOUNDARY.

covered with inscriptions, which he translated by means of two transparent stones found with them. The result was the Book of Mormon, said to be the history of a race favored by God which occupied this continent at a remote period of antiquity. The Mormons accept the Holy Bible as received by all Christian people, but believe the Book of Mormon to be an additional revelation, and also that their chief or prophet receives direct inspiration from God. Smith gained only a few converts at first. In 1831 they removed to Ohio, and a few years later to western Missouri. Here they increased rapidly in numbers and wealth, but they were soon driven out of the State, and went to Illinois. From about 1850, or earlier, until 1890 they practiced plural marriage, or polygamy, claiming that the Scriptures justify it. After the death of Smith and their expulsion from Nauvoo, a company under the leadership of Brigham Young crossed the Rocky Mountains, and settled near Great Salt Lake, in Utah. They were followed by others of their sect, and, after great sufferings, succeeded in establishing a prosperous colony. They founded Salt Lake City, where they erected a large temple for worship. Their prophet Brigham Young, who died August 19, 1877, is remembered by his followers with the greatest reverence.

Annexation of Texas.— The Texans, under General Sam Houston (hū'ston), having won their independence from Mexico (p. 246), applied (1844) for admission to the Union. Their petition was at first rejected by Congress,[1] but, being indorsed by the people in the fall elections, was granted the day before the close of Tyler's administration.



TEXAS.

Political Parties.— The question of the annexation of Texas went before the people for their decision. The Whigs, who opposed its admission, nominated Henry Clay[2] for President. The Democrats, who favored its admission, named James K. Polk, who, after a close contest, was elected.

[1] There were two reasons why this measure was warmly discussed. (1) Mexico claimed Texas, although that country had maintained its independence for nine years, and had been recognized by several European nations, as well as by the United States. Besides, Texas claimed to the Rio Grande (re'o grän'dā), while Mexico insisted upon the Nueces (nwā sēs) River as the boundary line between Texas and Mexico. The section of country between these rivers was therefore disputed territory, and the annexation of Texas would bring on a war with Mexico. (2) The Texans held slaves. Consequently, while the South urged the admission of Texas, the North as strongly opposed it.

[2] Henry Clay was a man whom the nation loved but signally failed to honor. Yet his fame and reputation remain far above any distinction which mere office can give, and unite with them an affection which stands the test of time. Respected by his opponents, he was almost idolized by his friends. In this he somewhat resembled Jefferson, but, unlike him, he had not in his early years the advantages of a liberal education. His father, a Baptist minister of very limited means, died when Henry was five years old, and at fifteen he was left to support himself. Meantime, he had received what little tuition he had, in a log-cabin schoolhouse, from very indifferent teachers. With a rare tact for making friends, ready talent waiting to be instructed,

JAMES K. POLK'S ADMINISTRATION (1845–1849)[1]

WAR WITH MEXICO (1846–1847)

Taylor's Army.—*Campaign on the Rio Grande.*—General Zachary Taylor, having been ordered with his troops into the disputed territory, met and defeated (May 8, 1846) a Mexican army at Palo Alto (pah'lō ahl'tō). The next day he met the same army at Resaca de la Palma (rā-sah'kah dā lah pahl'mah), and drove it across the Rio

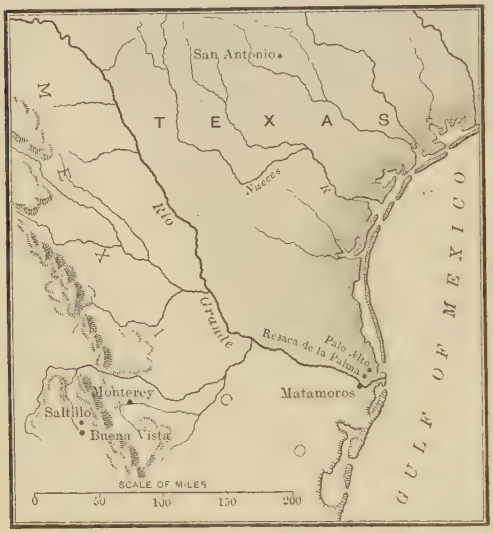
and a strong determination seeking opportunities, he soon began to show the dawnings of the power which afterwards distinguished him. He said: "I owe my success in life to a single fact, namely, that at an early age I commenced, and continued for some years, the practice of daily reading and speaking the contents of some historical or scientific book. These offhand efforts were sometimes made in a cornfield; at others, in the forest; and not unfrequently in some distant barn, with the horse and ox for my only auditors. It is to this that I am indebted for the impulses that have shaped and molded my entire destiny." Rising rapidly by the force of his genius, he soon made himself felt in his State and in the nation. He was peculiarly winning in his manners. An eminent and stern political antagonist once refused an introduction to him expressly on the ground of a determination not to be magnetized by personal contact, as he "had known other good haters" of Clay to be. United with this suavity was a wonderful will and an inflexible honor. His political adversary but personal admirer, John C. Breckinridge, in an oration pronounced at his death, uttered these words: "If I were to write his epitaph, I would inscribe as the highest eulogy on the stone which shall mark his resting place: 'Here lies a man who was in the public service for fifty years, and never attempted to deceive his countrymen.'"

HENRY CLAY.

[1] James K. Polk was born 1795; died 1849. He was a conspicuous opposer of the administration of John Quincy Adams, and a warm supporter of Jackson. In 1839, having served fourteen years in Congress, he declined a reëlection, and was chosen governor of Tennessee. His presidential nomination, in connection with that of

Grande in utter rout. When news of these encounters reached Washington, Congress declared war.

Capture of Monterey (September 24).— General Taylor, with about 6000 men, advanced upon Monterey (montā rā'). This city was strongly fortified, and its streets were barricaded and defended by a garrison of 10,000 men. To avoid the deadly fire from the windows, roofs, and barricades, the assaulting troops entered the buildings and dug their way through the stone walls from house to house, or passed from roof to roof. They came at last within one square of the Grand Plaza, when the city was surrendered. The garrison was allowed to march out with the honors of war.



GENERAL TAYLOR'S CAMPAIGN.

Battle of Buena Vista (February 23, 1847).— Santa Anna, the Mexican general, learning that the flower of Taylor's command had been withdrawn to aid General Scott (p. 218),

George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania as Vice President, had the effect of uniting the Democratic party, which had been disturbed by dissensions between the friends and opponents of Martin Van Buren. The Mexican war, which was strongly opposed in many States, the enactment of a tariff based on a revenue principle instead of a protective one, and the agitation caused by the Wilmot Proviso (p. 221), conspired to affect his popularity before the end of his term. He had, however, previously pledged himself not to be a candidate for reëlection. He died about three months after his retirement from office.

determined to crush the remainder. The little American army took post near Buena Vista (bwā′nah vees′tah), on a mountain pass and a plateau with hills on one side and ravines on the other.[1] Here it was attacked by Santa Anna with 20,000 of the best troops of Mexico. The battle lasted from early morning till dark. Again and again the Mexicans seemed on the point of overwhelming the Americans by force of numbers; but Taylor skillfully sent reënforcements where they were needed. The American artillery wrought such havoc in the crowded masses of the enemy that they finally broke and fled in disorder.

General Taylor's work was now done. His army was intended only to hold the country already gained, while General Scott penetrated to the capital from Vera Cruz (vā′rah kroos).

Kearny's Army.— General Stephen W. Kearny (kär′ny) was directed to take the Mexican provinces of New Mexico and California. Starting from Fort Leavenworth (June, 1846), after a journey of 1000 miles he reached Santa Fé (map, p. 218). Unfurling there the United States flag, he continued his march toward California.[2] On his way, however, he learned from Kit Carson, the noted

[1] Several anecdotes are told of General Taylor in connection with this battle. The day before the principal attack, the Mexicans fired heavily on our line. A Mexican officer, coming with a message from Santa Anna, found Taylor sitting on his white horse, with one leg over the pommel of his saddle. The officer asked him what he was waiting for. He answered: "For Santa Anna to surrender." After the officer's return a battery opened on Taylor's position, but he remained coolly surveying the enemy with his spyglass. Some one suggesting that "Whitey" was too conspicuous a horse for the battle, he replied that the "old fellow had missed the fun at Monterey, and he should have his share this time."

[2] Colonel Doniphan, with 1000 men, the main body of General Kearny's command, marched over 1000 miles through a hostile country, from Santa Fé to Saltillo, having on the way fought two battles and conquered the province and city of Chihuahua (che waw′waw). At the end of their term of service he led his men back to New Orleans and discharged them. They had been enlisted, marched 5000 miles, and disbanded, all in a year.

hunter, that he was late. The winter before, Captain John C. Frémont, with a company of sixty men, had been engaged in surveying a new route to Oregon. Hearing that the Mexican commandant intended to expel the American settlers, he went to their rescue, although he was not aware that war had broken out between the United

GENERAL KEARNY'S CAMPAIGN.

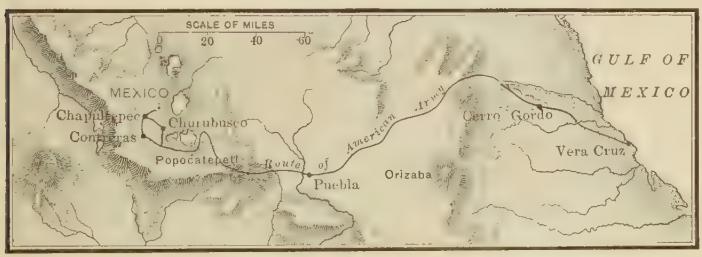
States and Mexico. With greatly inferior numbers he was victor over the Mexicans in every conflict. By the help of Commodores Sloat and Stockton, and also of General Kearny, who came in time to aid in the last battle, the entire country was conquered.

Scott's Army.— *Capture of Vera Cruz* (March 29, 1847).— General Winfield Scott landed an army 12,000 strong without opposition, and forthwith drew his siege lines among the shifting sand hills and chaparral thickets

about Vera Cruz. After a fierce bombardment of four days the city was surrendered.

March to Mexico.— In about a week, the army took up its march for the capital. At the mountain pass of Cer'ro Gor'do the enemy was strongly fortified. Our men cut a road around the base of the mountain through the forest, and dragged cannon up a precipice to the rear of the position by ropes. Thence a plunging fire was opened simultaneously with an assault in front, and the Mexicans fled in haste (April 18).

The city of Puebla (pwĕb'lah), next to Mexico in importance, surrendered without resistance. Here Scott waited nearly three months for reënforcements.



GENERAL SCOTT'S CAMPAIGN.

Battles before Mexico.—With 11,000 men the march was resumed (August 7), and in three days the army reached the crest of the mountains overlooking the magnificent valley of Mexico. In the valley was the city, surrounded by fertile plains and snow-capped mountains. But the way thither was guarded by 30,000 men and strong fortifications. Turning to the south to avoid the strongest points, by a route considered impassable, the army came before the intrenched camp of CONTRERAS (kon trā'ras), within fourteen miles of Mexico (August 19). The next day this camp was taken, the height of CHURUBUSCO (choo-

roo boo'sko) was stormed, numerous batteries were captured, and the defenses laid bare to the causeways leading to the very gates of the city. An armistice and fruitless negotiations for peace delayed the advance until General Scott found that the Mexicans were only improving the time in strengthening their works. Once more (September 8) our army moved to the assault.

CASTLE OF CHAPULTEPEC.

The attack was irresistible. The formidable outworks were taken one by one. At last the castle of CHAPULTEPEC (chah pool ta pek'), on a high rock commanding the city, was stormed. The next day (September 14) the army entered the city, and the Stars and Stripes waved in triumph over the Mexican palace.

THE MEXICAN CESSION OF 1848.

Peace.— The fall of the capital virtually closed the war. By the treaty of February 2, 1848, the United States gained the vast territory reaching south to the Gila (hē'lah) and west to the Pacific, and paid Mexico $15,000,000.

Northwest Boundary. — The northeast boundary dispute (p. 213) had scarcely been settled, when the Oregon question, involving the northwest boundary, came into great prominence. This great territory was held under joint occupation with the British; but when our people began to settle it rapidly, the United States was inclined to claim the whole of it up to 54° 40′. The French claim to the Oregon country had been included in the Louisiana purchase, and the Spanish claim was ended by the treaty of 1819. The dispute with Great Britain was settled by a compromise fixing the boundary line at 49° (1846). See maps on pages 198 and 226.

Domestic Affairs.— *The Wilmot Proviso.*— The new territory won from Mexico became at once a bone of contention. David Wilmot had offered in Congress (August, 1846) an amendment to an appropriation bill, forbidding slavery in any of the territory that might be acquired. This measure, though lost, excited violent debate, and became the great feature of the fall election.

Discovery of Gold in California.—A workman in digging a millrace on an eastern branch of the Sacramento River (January, 1848) discovered shining particles of gold. A further search proved that the soil for miles around contained the precious metal. The news flew in every direction. Emigration began from all parts of America, and even from Europe and Asia. In eighteen months 100,000 persons went from the United States to this El Dora'do, where a fortune was to be picked up in a few days. Some went by sea, but others made their way across the prairies and mountains, amid privations that strewed the route with skeletons. A city of shanties sprang up at the entrance to San Francisco Bay. Ships in this harbor were deserted by their crews, who ran to the mines, sometimes, it is said,

headed by their officers. Soon streets were laid out, houses erected, and from this Babel grew up, as if by magic, a beautiful city. For a time lawlessness reigned supreme; but, driven by the necessity of events, the more respectable

MIGRATING TO CALIFORNIA.

citizens took the law into their own hands, organized "vigilance committees," and administered a rude but prompt justice which presently restored order.

New States.—The admission of Texas, Iowa, and Wisconsin (p. 246) made the total number of States thirty, of which half were free and half slave.

Political Parties.—Three parties now sought the suffrages of the people. The Whigs nominated General Taylor for President; the Democrats, Lewis Cass; and the Free-soilers, who were opposed to the extension of slavery, Martin Van Buren. The personal popularity of General Taylor, on account of his many sterling qualities and his brilliant victories in the Mexican war, made him the favorite candidate, and he was elected.

TAYLOR AND FILLMORE'S ADMINISTRATION (1849–1853)[1]

General Taylor, like General Harrison, died soon after his elevation to the presidency. Millard Fillmore, Vice President, succeeded him.

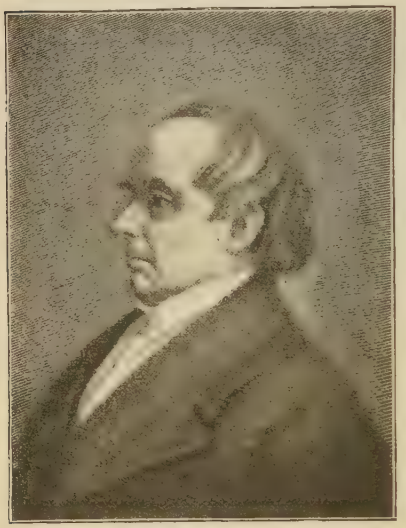
Domestic Affairs.—Slavery questions were the great political topic of this administration. When California applied for admission to the Union as a free State, all these subjects were brought to a focus. A hot debate ensued, and for a while it seemed as if the Union would be rent asunder. At this terrible crisis, Henry Clay, the "Great Pacificator," came forward, and, with his wonderful eloquence, urged the necessity of mutual compromise and forbearance. Daniel Webster[2] warmly seconded this effort at conciliation.

[1] Zachary Taylor was born in Virginia in 1784. Soon after his birth his parents removed to Kentucky. His means of education were extremely scanty, and until he was twenty-four years of age he worked on his father's plantation. Madison, who was a relative and at that time Secretary of State, then secured for him an appointment in the army as lieutenant. From this he rose by regular and rapid degrees to a major-generalship. Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, Monterey, and Buena Vista won him great applause. He was the hero of a successful war, and the soldiers admiringly called him "Old Rough and Ready." Many Whig leaders violently opposed his nomination. Daniel Webster called him "an ignorant frontier colonel." The fact that he was a slaveholder was warmly urged against him. He knew nothing of civil affairs, and had taken so little interest in politics that he had not voted in forty years. His nomination caused a secession from the Whigs, which, combined with a similar Democratic secession, resulted in the formation of the Free-soil party. As President, he maintained his popularity, and was one of the most esteemed who have filled that office. He died July 9, 1850, at the presidential mansion, after an illness of five days.

Millard Fillmore was born in Cayuga County, N. Y., 1800; died at Buffalo, 1874. He learned the fuller's trade, taught school, practiced law, served as assemblyman for three terms and as congressman for four terms, ran unsuccessfully for governor, and was comptroller of the State of New York when he was nominated for the vice-presidency. By his integrity, industry, and practical ability he won a place among the first statesmen of his day. His approval of the Fugitive Slave Law, however, cost him much of his popularity in the North.

[2] When Daniel Webster, the great American statesman and jurist, was fourteen years old, he first enjoyed the privilege of a few months' schooling at an academy. The man whose eloquence was afterwards to stir the nation was then so shy that he could not muster courage to speak before the school. In other respects, however, he

The Compromise of 1850.— The Omnibus Bill, Clay's measure, proposed (1) that California should come in as a free State (p. 246); (2) that the Territories of Utah and New Mexico should be formed without any provision concerning slavery; (3) that Texas should be paid $10,000,000 to give up its claim on territory north and west of its present boundaries. Clay also proposed (4) that the slave trade should be prohibited in the District of Columbia; and (5) that a Fugitive Slave Law should be enacted, providing more effectively for the return to their owners of slaves escaping to a free State. These various measures were finally, though separately, adopted as the best solution of the problem.



DANIEL WEBSTER.

Foreign Affairs.— *Invasion of Cuba.*— About five hundred adventurers, "filibusters," undertook the annexation of Cuba to the United States. The attempt ended in defeat, and in the execution, at Havana, of Lopez, the leader (1851).

Political Parties.— The Democratic and Whig parties

gave decided promise of his future eminence. Having finished his collegiate education, he entered the profession of law. By rapid strides he placed himself at the head of American orators. It was a disappointment to Webster's friends, as it was, perhaps, to himself, that he was never placed in the presidential chair. But, like Clay, although he might have honored that position, he needed it not to enhance his renown. His death, in 1852, called out more orations and sermons than had any other except that of Washington.

both declared that they stood by the provisions of the Compromise of 1850. The Free-soil party was outspoken against it. Franklin Pierce, the presidential nominee of the Democratic party, was elected by a large majority over General Scott, the Whig candidate.

COLLATERAL READINGS

Oregon.—Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. iv. pp. 504–514.
California.—Schouler, vol. v. pp. 129–142.
Compromise of 1850.—Schouler, vol. v. pp. 143–148, 162–173, 178–189, 196–201 (Northern view); Stephens's *War between the States*, vol. ii. pp. 199–221, 231–233 (Southern view).

PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION (1853–1857)[1]

Domestic Affairs.—*Kansas-Nebraska Bill.*—The Compromise of 1850 produced only a lull in the slavery excitement. It burst out anew when Stephen A. Douglas brought into Congress his famous bill organizing the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska, and advocating the doctrine of "squatter sovereignty," i.e. the right of the inhabitants of each Territory to decide for themselves whether or not slavery should be allowed there.[2] This

[1] Franklin Pierce was born 1804; died 1869. He had barely attained the requisite legal age when he was elected to the Senate. He there found such men as Clay, Webster, Calhoun, Seward, Benton, and Silas Wright. Nathaniel Hawthorne says in his biography of Mr. Pierce: "With his usual tact and exquisite sense of propriety, he saw that it was not the time for him to step forward prominently on this highest theater in the land. He beheld these great combatants doing battle before the eyes of the nation and engrossing its whole regards. There was hardly an avenue to reputation save what was occupied by one or another of those gigantic figures." During Mr. Tyler's administration he resigned. When the Mexican war broke out he enlisted as a volunteer, but soon rose to the rank of brigadier general. He distinguished himself under General Scott, against whom he afterwards successfully ran for the presidency, and upon whom, during his administration, he conferred the title of lieutenant general. Pierce opposed antislavery measures in every shape, but at the opening of the Civil War he espoused the cause of the Union.

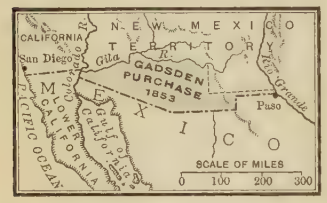
[2] The public lands have often threatened the peace of the nation. (1) The question of their ownership was one of the greatest obstacles to the union of the States after the Revolution; but the threatened trouble was averted by the generosity of the land-holding States (p. 163). The public lands south of the Ohio River were ceded on con-

125
120
115
110
105
100
50
45
40
35
30
25
Longitude
Vancouver I.
Boundary established by Treaty with Great Britain 1846
BRITISH POSSESSIONS
Puget Sound
Olympia
Astoria
Portland
Oregon City
Columbia R.
OREGON TERRITORY
Walla Walla
Missouri R.
White Earth R.
MINNESOTA TERRITORY
UNORGANIZED TERRITORY
Yellowstone R.
Missouri R.
Snake R.
Great Salt Lake
OPEN TO SLAVERY
UTAH TERRITORY
SALT LAKE CITY
OREGON TRAIL
Platte R.
Ft. Kearney
Sacramento R.
SACRAMENTO
San Francisco
CALIFORNIA 1850
Monterey
COMPROMISE OF 1850
Arkansas R.
TRAIL
SANTA FE
Taos
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY
Canadian R.
Los Angeles
San Diego
Colorado R.
Gila R.
Boundary established by Treaty with Mexico 1848
Rio Grande
Pecos R.
Colorado R.
TEXAS 1845
AUSTIN
San Antonio
Nueces R.
Corpus Christi
Rio Grande
LOWER CALIFORNIA
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
MEXICO
PACIFIC OCEAN

THE UNITED STATES
in 1850
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
from Greenwich
95 90 85 80 75 70 65
50 45 40 35 30 25
James Bay
Lake of the Woods
L. SUPERIOR
L. MICHIGAN
L. HURON
L. ONTARIO
L. ERIE
Quebec
Montreal
Kingston
Toronto
Buffalo
Rochester
Syracuse
Utica
Troy
Albany
Boston
Portland
Concord
Providence
Newport
New Haven
Hartford
New York
Philadelphia
Wilmington
Baltimore
Washington
Alexandria
Richmond
Norfolk
Lynchburg
Harrisburg
Pittsburg
Cleveland
Sandusky
Detroit
Toledo
Wheeling
Columbus
Cincinnati
Dayton
Indianapolis
Springfield
Frankfort
Lexington
Louisville
Nashville
Knoxville
Chattanooga
Memphis
Huntsville
Tuscaloosa
Vicksburg
Jackson
Natchez
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Galveston
Mobile
Pensacola
Tallahassee
St. Augustine
Jacksonville
Savannah
Brunswick
Macon
Augusta
Milledgeville
Atlanta
Charleston
Columbia
Raleigh
Fayetteville
Wilmington
C. Hatteras
Cairo
Alton
St. Louis
Jefferson City
Iowa City
Burlington
Des Moines
Dubuque
Milwaukee
Chicago
Green Bay
Sagihaw
Lansing
Grand Rapids
Madison
Stillwater
St. Paul
Little Rock
Key West
Bahamas
(To Gt. Brit.)
Gulf of Mexico
Atlantic Ocean
Wisconsin
Iowa
Arkansas
Tennessee
Kentucky
Virginia
North Carolina
South Carolina
Georgia
Florida
Alabama
Mississippi
Louisiana
Indiana
Ohio
Michigan
Illinois
Pennsylvania
New Jersey
Maryland
Delaware
Vermont
New Hampshire
Maine
Brunswick
Canada
1848
1846
1836
1845
1831

bill, being a repudiation of the Missouri Compromise, excited intense feeling.[1] It, however, became a law (1854).

"*Border Warfare.*"—The struggle was now taken from Congress to Kansas. A bitter contest arose between the proslavery and the antislavery men — the former anxious to secure the State for slavery, the latter for freedom. Each party sent armed emigrants to the Territory, and civil war ensued. Bands of armed men crossed over from Missouri, took possession of the polls, and controlled the elections. Houses were attacked and pillaged, and men were murdered in cold blood. For several years Kansas was the scene of lawless violence.



MEXICAN CESSION OF 1853.

Foreign Affairs. — *Mexico.*— Owing to a disagreement of the men appointed to locate the bounds of the Mexican cession, a dispute arose between the United States and Mexico. General Gadsden negotiated a settlement whereby Mexico was paid $10,000,000, and the United States secured (1853) the region known as the Gadsden purchase, which was added to New Mexico Territory.

dition that they should be slave soil. North of the Ohio Congress made the soil free (p. 163). (2) After Congress acquired public lands west of the Mississippi by the Louisiana purchase, a perplexing question was, Shall they be free or slave soil? Upon it, for years, hinged largely the politics of the country. The admission of Missouri, Texas, California, and Kansas was each the signal for the reopening of this vexed question. Though the public lands have been the cause of intestine strife, they have been a source of great national wealth. Their sale has brought large sums into the treasury. They have been given to settlers as a stimulus to immigration. They have been granted to endow colleges and schools, to build railroads, to reward the soldiers and support their widows and orphans.

[1] The bitter discussion on the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and the contest in Kansas, lasted for years. Senator Sumner, of Massachusetts, during a speech that occupied two days (May 19, 20, 1856), having made some severe reflections upon Senator Butler, of South Carolina, was assaulted by Preston S. Brooks, a nephew of Butler and a South Carolina representative. Mr. Brooks, having resigned his seat, was immediately returned. It was over three years before Mr. Sumner recovered his health.

Japan.— Commodore Perry's expedition to Japan (1854) excited great attention. He negotiated a treaty which gave to the merchants of the United States two ports of entry in that exclusive country. This was the first step

PERRY'S VISIT TO JAPAN.

made by Japan toward the acquirement of modern methods of commerce and modern civilization, in which she is now so far advanced.

Political Parties.— The Compromise of 1820 having been repealed, the slavery question became the turning point of the election. New party lines were drawn to meet this issue.[1] The Whig party ceased to exist. The new Republican party, absorbing all who opposed the extension of slavery, nominated John C. Frémont, who received the

[1] A third party, called the Know-nothing or American party, was organized to resist the influence of foreigners. It carried the vote of only one State, Maryland. Its motto was "America for Americans." The party aroused bitter feelings, but had only a transient existence.

vote of eleven States. The Democratic party, retaining its organization, nominated James Buchanan, who was elected President.

BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION (1857–1861)[1]

Domestic Affairs.—*Dred Scott*[2] *Decision.*—The Supreme Court of the United States (1857), through Chief Justice Taney, declared that slave-owners might take their slaves into any State in the Union without forfeiting their rights of property. In the North, this was considered as removing the last barrier to the extension of slavery, and as changing it from a local to a national institution; in the South, it was regarded only as a right guaranteed them by the Constitution, whereby they should be protected in the possession of their property in every State.

The Fugitive Slave Law had intensified the already heated controversy, and the subject of slavery now dis-

[1] James Buchanan was born 1791; died 1868. The first "bachelor President" was sixty-six years old when called to the executive chair. He had just returned to his native country after an absence of some years as minister to England. Before that, he had been well known in public life, having been representative, senator, and Secretary of State. As senator in Jackson's time he heartily supported his administration. With Van Buren he warmly advocated the plan of an independent treasury (p. 209), against the opposition of Clay, Webster, and others. Under Tyler, he was urgently in favor of the annexation of Texas, thus again coming into conflict with Clay and Webster. He cordially agreed with them, however, in the Compromise of 1850 (p. 224), and urged the people to adopt it. Much was hoped from his election, as he avowed that the object of his administration was to destroy any sectional party and to restore fraternal feeling between the different States. But popular passion and sectional jealousy were too strong to yield to pleasant persuasion. When Mr. Buchanan's administration closed, the horrors of civil war were close at hand. He retired to his estate in Pennsylvania, where he died.

[2] Scott and his wife were slaves belonging to a surgeon in the United States army. They were taken into and resided in Illinois and Minnesota, in territory from which, by the Ordinance of 1787, slavery was forever excluded. Afterwards they were carried into Missouri, where they and their children were held as slaves. They claimed freedom on the ground that, by the act of their master, they had been carried into free territory. The decision of the court against their claims created an intense excitement throughout the country.

placed all others. The provision which commanded every good citizen to aid in the arrest of fugitives was especially obnoxious to the North. Disturbances arose whenever attempts were made to restore runaway slaves to their masters. Several of the Northern States passed "Personal Liberty" bills, securing to fugitive slaves, when arrested, the right of trial by jury. The Southerners claimed that these laws practically nullified the Fugitive Slave Law passed by Congress. Hundreds of slaves were assisted to escape to the far North or to Canada by men who hated the institution of slavery.[1] Regular routes were established for escaping slaves, and the whole system was called the "Underground Railroad."

John Brown, a man who had brooded over the exciting scenes through which he had passed in Kansas until he thought himself called upon to take the law into his own hands, seized upon the United States arsenal at Harpers Ferry (1859), and proclaimed freedom to the slaves in the vicinity. His feeble band was soon overpowered by United States troops, and Brown himself was found guilty of treason, of inciting slaves to rebel, and of murder, and was hanged. Though it was soon known that in his wild design he had asked counsel of no one, yet at the time the Southern feeling was aroused to frenzy, his act being looked upon as significant of the sentiments of the North. Sympathy for the man was mistaken for sympathy in his cause.

New States.— The admission of Minnesota, Oregon, and Kansas, all as free States, ended the policy of keeping the free and slave States equal in number (p. 247).

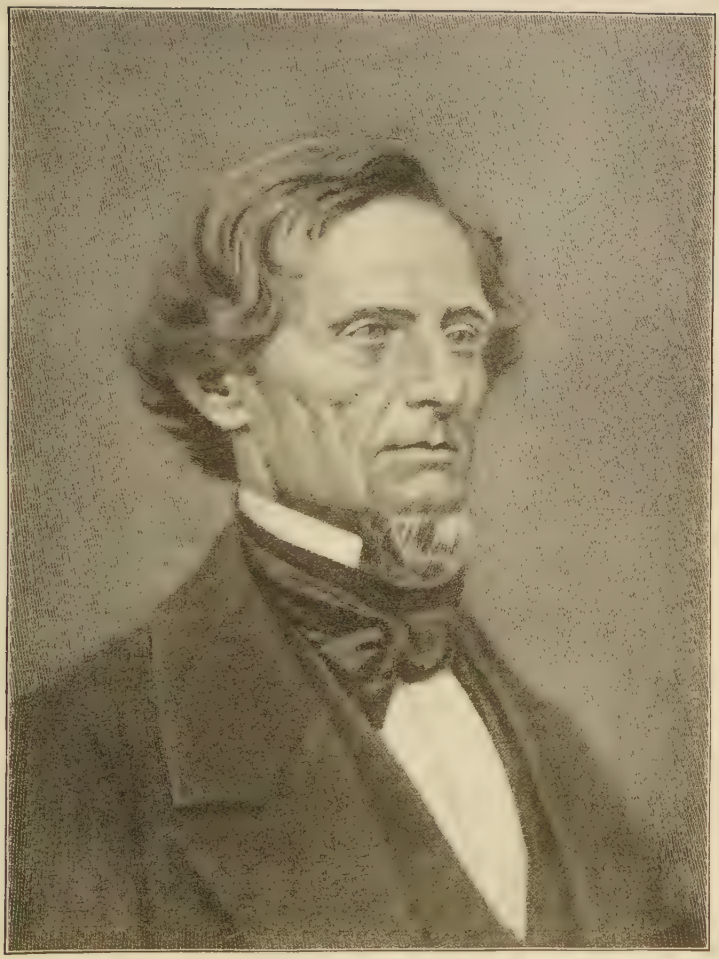
[1] The feeling against slavery was greatly increased by Mrs. Stowe's novel called *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, which gives a vivid picture of the possible evils of slavery. The book had an enormous sale at the time, and is still read in many countries besides our own. The South, however, considered the novel to be misleading and incendiary.

Political Parties.— The election again turned on the question of slavery. The Democratic party now divided, and made two conflicting nominations for President: Stephen A. Douglas, who favored squatter sovereignty (p. 225), and John C. Breckinridge, who claimed that slavery could be carried into any Territory. The Republican party nominated Abraham Lincoln, who held that while slavery must be protected where it was, it ought not to be carried into the Territories.[1] Lincoln was elected.

The South Secedes.— Throughout the fall campaign the Southern leaders had threatened to secede if Mr. Lincoln was elected. They now declared it was time to leave a government which had fallen into the hands of their avowed enemies. Since the days of Calhoun they had been firm believers in the doctrine of State rights, which taught that a State could leave the Union whenever it pleased. In December (1860) South Carolina seceded, and, soon after, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas passed ordinances of secession. In February (1861) delegates from these States met at Montgomery, Ala., and formed a government called the "Confederate States of America." Jefferson Davis,[2] of

[1] The Union party put up John Bell, of Tennessee. Its motto was, "The Union, the Constitution, and the enforcement of the laws."

[2] Jefferson Davis was born 1808; died 1889. He was a United States senator from Mississippi when that State seceded, and had long been prominent in national affairs. A graduate of the West Point Military Academy, he served as an army officer in the Black Hawk War and elsewhere against the Indians. He resigned in 1835, and settled near Vicksburg, Miss., as a cotton planter. His ability as a public speaker won him a seat in Congress (1845), which he left to become colonel of the First Mississippi Volunteers in the war with Mexico. His regiment formed part of the army under General Taylor (Davis's father-in-law), and did some hard fighting at Monterey and Buena Vista, where Davis was severely wounded. He entered the United States Senate in 1847, was the unsuccessful candidate for governor of Mississippi in 1851, and in 1853–57 was Secretary of War. In the Senate he was a zealous and able advocate of State rights, but up to the time of Lincoln's election he labored to preserve the Union. He is the author of *The Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government* (1881), in which he maintains the justice of the Southern cause.



Jefferson Davis

Mississippi, was chosen President, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, Vice President. United States forts, arsenals, customhouses, and ships were seized by the States in which they were situated. Buchanan did nothing to prevent the catastrophe. General Scott was infirm. The regular army was small and widely scattered. The navy had been sent to distant ports. The Cabinet sympathized largely with the secessionists. Numerous unsuccessful efforts were made to effect a compromise. It was the general expectation that there would be no war, and the cry "No coercion" was general.[1] Yet affairs steadily drifted on toward war.[2]

Fort Sumter.— All eyes were now turned on Fort Sumter. Here Major Anderson kept the United States flag

[1] Even the New York *Tribune* declared: "Whenever any considerable section of our Union shall deliberately resolve to go out, we shall resist all coercive measures to keep them in."

[2] Southern secession was not a sudden movement. The sectional difference between the North and the South had its source in the difference of climate, which greatly modified the character and habits of the people; also, while the agricultural pursuits and staple products of the South made slave labor profitable, the mechanical pursuits and the more varied products of the North made it unprofitable. These antagonisms, settled first by the Missouri Compromise of 1820, reopened by the tariff of 1828, bursting forth in the nullification of 1832, pacified by Clay's compromise tariff, increased through the annexation of Texas and the consequent war with Mexico, irritated by the Wilmot Proviso, lulled for a time by the Compromise of 1850, awakened by the "squatter sovereignty" policy of Douglas, roused to fury by the agitation in Kansas, spread broadcast by the Dred Scott decision, the attempted execution of the Fugitive Slave Law, and the John Brown raid, had now reached a point where war was the only remedy. The election of Lincoln was the pivot on which the result turned. The cause ran back through thirty years of controversy to the difference in climate, in occupation, and in the habit of life and thought. Strange to say, each section misunderstood the other. The Southern people believed the North to be so engrossed in money-making and so enfeebled by luxury that it could send to the field only mercenary soldiers, who would easily be beaten by the patriotic Southerners. They said, "Cotton is king"; and believed that England and France were so dependent upon them for that staple that their republic would be recognized and defended by those European powers. On the other hand, the Northern people did not believe that the South would dare to fight for secession when it had 4,000,000 slaves exposed to the chances of war. They thought the Southern threats to be all bluster, and hence paid little heed to them. Both sides sadly learned their mistake, only too late.

flying in Charleston harbor. He had been stationed in Fort Moultrie, but, fearing an attack, had crossed over to Fort Sumter, a stronger position. The South Carolinians, looking upon this as a hostile act, took possession of the remaining forts, commenced erecting batteries, and prepared to reduce Fort Sumter. Major Anderson was compelled by his instructions to remain a quiet spectator. The *Star of the West*, an unarmed steamer bearing supplies to the fort, was fired upon and driven back. The Southern leaders declared that any attempt to relieve Fort Sumter would be a declaration of war. The government seemed paralyzed with fear. All now waited for the new President.

In the next epoch we shall learn about the terrible Civil War caused by this effort to secede. During its progress slavery received its deathblow, and the issue of the conflict decided that the nation should be henceforth "one and inseparable."

COLLATERAL READING

The Presidential Election of 1860.— Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. v. pp. 454–469.

SOCIETY BEFORE THE CIVIL WAR

Obliteration of Rank.— The free air of the New World, and the independent thought upon every question, conduced to break down the distinctions of rank and dress that were at first established (p. 105). This tendency early became a source of anxiety to the colonial legislator. In 1640 it was ordered that as "divers Persons of severall Ranks are obsearved still to exceede" in their apparel, "the Constables of every towne within their Libertyes shall observe and take notice of any particular Person or

Persons within their severall Lymits, and all such as they judge to exceede their condition and Rank therein, they shall present and warn to appear at the particular Court."

WOMAN'S DRESS, ABOUT 1840.

These "sumptuary laws" were not a dead letter, for we read of one Alice Flynt who was cited before the court and required to show that she was worth the two hundred pounds required to entitle her to wear a silk hood. After Independence, social changes went on rapidly. The title "Master" came to be confined to holders of slaves, while "Mr.," once a sure sign of rank, was applied to every male in the land, and to omit it, when speaking of great men, became a mark of distinction. So rapidly did the new ideas spread, that when Lafayette visited America in 1824, he asked with astonishment, "Where are the common people?" He saw only crowds of well dressed citizens, but no yeomen, mechanics, merchants, and servants — the four ranks below that of gentleman that were to be distinctly observed when he first saw the country, in Revolutionary times.

MAN'S DRESS, ABOUT 1840.

Men's knee breeches were discarded for trousers about 1815. Though fashions constantly varied, as they do still, these two pictures show about how people dressed for a number of years before the Civil War.

The Laborer of post-Revolutionary days, though he had secured social and political privileges, could obtain far fewer comforts than he can to-day. His house had neither paint nor glass windows. Within, it was low and dingy. The floor knew no carpets or rugs. The kitchen had no stove, or lamp, or coal, or matches. There was no glass or chinaware on his table, but he ate his homely fare from a wooden platter. Fresh meat was a rarity. All the staples of life were expensive to one who received only two shillings a day. Leather breeches and apron, a coarse flannel jacket, and heavy cowhide shoes were the best his wardrobe could afford.

The growth of manufactures in the period 1825–60 caused many improvements in the condition of laborers. A number of trades unions were organized at this time. After 1835 many strikes occurred. Wages were gradually increased, and an agitation was begun for shortening the work day; in some cases the hours of labor were reduced from twelve or fourteen to ten a day. All this applies, of course, chiefly to the Northern States; in the South, practically all labor was performed by slaves.

Imprisonment for Debt was common for many years after the Revolution as well as before it. The poor man just recovering from a long sickness was liable to be arrested for the nonpayment of the little bills incurred during his illness, and thrust into prison among the vilest offenders. As late as 1830, it is estimated, there were more than 50,000 people imprisoned for debt in the United States, many of them for sums as small as one dollar. But about that time the various States began, one by one, to make laws abolishing the imprisonment of debtors. Improvements were also gradually made in the condition of prisons and in the care of the insane.

The Schools, even within the memory of many persons now living, were far inferior in equipment and methods to those of our day. The text-books were few and coarsely executed. In early times the only reading books were the Bible, the Psalter, and the New England Primer. After the Revolution, the Columbian Orator — filled with patriotic selections — attained a great celebrity. When Webster's American Spelling Book was issued, about 1784, it gradually came into general use. Murray's Grammar and Daboll's Arithmetic were the standards for half a century. The ordinary geography was in two volumes — one containing the maps and the other the text. Morse invented (1839) a process of engraving whereby the maps could be struck off with the text, on a common printing press. In a single year 100,000 copies of his New Geography went into use. Writing books were usually home-made from foolscap, and ruled by the pupil with lead plummets of his own manufacture. Slate pencils were also whittled out by the boys from soft claystones. Quill pens were used, and their making constituted no small part of a teacher's task. Wall maps, charts, blackboards, globes, etc., came in only slowly as education advanced.

INDUSTRIAL HISTORY

During the Revolution, while our commerce was destroyed and our agricultural interests greatly injured, some manufactures received an impetus from the fact that the war stopped nearly all imports. The people were forced to make for themselves many things which had previously been obtained from abroad.

After peace was made, however, great quantities of

manufactured goods were shipped in from abroad, glutting the markets here, lowering the prices, and discouraging our manufacturers. But with continued peace, and especially after the adoption of our Constitution, all our industries revived. In the great war between France and Great Britain (1793–1815), each of these countries did much to destroy the other's ships and trade. As the neutrality of the United States was at first respected, our ships were given a great advantage, and our commerce and shipbuilding increased by leaps and bounds, as did also our agricultural prosperity, until the commerce of the United States was exceeded by that of no country in the world except Great Britain.

But each of these warring nations (France and Great Britain) soon attacked our trade with the other, and our foreign commerce was completely stopped for a time by the embargo (p. 183); whereupon the people again gave more attention to manufactures.

The War of 1812 repeats our industrial history. During the war our commerce was swept from the sea and our manufactures were increased; and upon the conclusion of peace a great flood of imports swamped our growing manufactures and brought on a period of hard times. Indeed, people then found it so hard to make a living in the seaboard States that there was a rush to the West. So many people emigrated that five new western States were admitted to the Union between 1816 and 1821.

In a few years, however, general prosperity returned, and the period from about 1820 to 1860 was marked by a marvelous advance in all branches of industry. This was due largely to the invention of labor-saving machines, and to the growth of population.

Among the American inventions of this period, besides

the steamboat (p. 181) and the telegraph (p. 212), were the sewing machine, mower, reaper, horse rake, steam fire engine, and the vulcanizing of rubber. The vast extent of cheap and fertile land in this country, together with the better wages paid here for labor, led thousands of emigrants from Europe to come to this country every year. A great famine in Ireland in 1847 made the number much larger, and for several years it was over 300,000 a year. The total population of the country increased from 4,000,000 in 1790 to 31,000,000 in 1860.

PICKING COTTON.

Agriculture.— In the South the greatest change was the increase in the growth of cotton (p. 172), until this became the staple product of the section, and our most valuable export. In 1784, when eight bags of cotton were sent to Liverpool, the customhouse authorities seized it on the plea that so much could not have been raised in America.

The yield in 1860 was over 4,500,000 bales, and the United States controlled the cotton supply of the world. In Louisiana the production of cane sugar became of some importance. Tobacco and rice were raised as before, but the production of indigo was abandoned. The middle West became a highly prosperous agricultural region. The production of hay and grain was increased by the invention of the mower, reaper, and other agricultural machinery. In the whole country food crops were raised in greater abundance and variety, and cattle, sheep, hogs, horses, and other domestic animals greatly increased in numbers.

The increasing demand for lumber during this period caused a steady growth in the industry of lumbering. Besides, much timber was cut and burned merely to clear the ground for agriculture.

Mining.— From very small beginnings the mining industry grew to great proportions. The most important mines were those of coal and iron in Pennsylvania, but nearly every State yielded mineral products of some kind. In the reduction of iron ore and the working of iron, until about 1840, charcoal made from wood was the fuel employed; but by 1860 this had given place almost entirely to coke made from coal. During the first half of the century gold was sparingly mined in the foothills of the southern Appalachians, but these mines were entirely eclipsed by the far richer ones of California, which led to the rapid settlement and admission of that State. Soon after this the silver mines of Nevada attracted much attention. Lead has been mined in Missouri, and copper in Michigan, from the earliest times. New York has long supplied large quantities of salt. Building stones, as needed, have been quarried in many States.

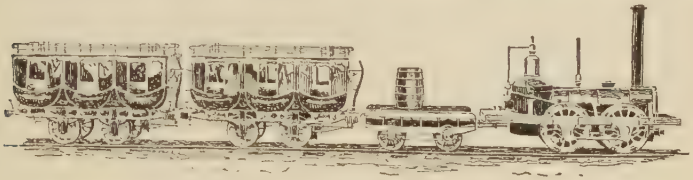
The Manufactures of the country in the year 1860 amounted to nearly $2,000,000,000 worth — ten times the value of the output in 1810. The great feature in the development of manufacturing was the introduction of the factory system; that is, the plan of making articles by the help of machines in factories instead of at the homes of the workmen. As the machine-made factory products became cheaper and cheaper, the household manufactures were abandoned. The new system stimulated the growth of cities: in 1790 there were very few towns, and nearly all the people lived in the country, but in 1860 there were 140 cities and large towns, in which lived one sixth of our total population.

In 1790 Samuel Slater began the operation of the first good cotton-spinning machinery in this country; he has been called "the father of American manufactures." About a quarter of a century later Francis C. Lowell started the first factory which carried on all the processes of making cotton goods — from raw fiber to cloth — by improved machinery, including the power loom. By 1860 there were 1000 cotton factories. Nearly all of these were in New England and the Middle States, but a few were in the South. Thus Whitney's cotton gin not only made the South prosperous in raising cotton, but also afforded the North an important industry in manufacturing the fiber into cloth.

Among the other branches of manufacture which reached a flourishing condition before 1860 were the making of woolen goods, the making of boots and shoes, iron manufacture, and the making of rubber goods.

Transportation.— Within a few years after the first trip of the *Clermont* (p. 181), steamboats were plying on nearly every navigable river and lake in the Union.

Canals were dug in several States. Many roads were laid out.[1] The cars on the first railroads were drawn by horses, and it was not till 1830 that steam locomotives were used for this purpose.[2] In 1860 there were 30,000 miles of rail-



AN EARLY RAILROAD TRAIN.

road in the country. The express business was begun in 1839, between New York and Boston. It grew rapidly, and soon there were established a dozen express companies.

Commerce.— With the increase in the area of the country and the greater variety of its industries, domestic commerce came to be much greater than the foreign commerce, though the latter steadily increased in value. Great numbers of ships (especially wooden sailing ships) were built, and American clippers were famous for their speed. About 1860 more American shipping was engaged in foreign trade than ever before or since.

CLIPPER SHIP.

[1] One of the most important was the National Pike, or Cumberland Road, which extended from the Potomac River to Wheeling, on the Ohio, and beyond. This was begun in the year 1806, and was constructed by the United States government.

[2] The first locomotive built in America was made by Peter Cooper, of New York, for the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.

NEW STATES (1789–1861)

The States admitted during the fourth epoch increased the number in the Union from thirteen to thirty-four. (See Table of States, in the appendix.)

Vermont, the fourteenth State, was admitted to the Union March 4, 1791. Champlain discovered and explored much of it in 1609. The first settlement was made in 1724, at Fort Dummer, near the site of Brattleboro. The region was claimed by both New Hampshire and New York (p. 127). In 1777 the inhabitants declared the "New Hampshire Grants" an independent State, under the name of Vermont; and in 1790 New York consented to relinquish her claim on the payment of $30,000.

Kentucky, the fifteenth State, was admitted to the Union June 1, 1792. Daniel Boone, a famous hunter, for two years rambled through the forests of this region, delighted with its scenery and the abundance of game. After many thrilling adventures and narrow escapes from the Indians, he established a fort at Boonesboro, and removed his family thither in June, 1775. This was the first permanent settlement in the State, then a part of Virginia, from which it was not separated till it became a State.

Tennessee, the sixteenth State, was admitted to the Union June 1, 1796. It was named from the River Tennessee, the "river with the great bend." It is thought that De Soto, in his wanderings, reached the Mississippi near the spot where Memphis now stands. The first permanent settlement in the State was at Fort Loudon (low'don), thirty miles from the present site of Knoxville, in 1757. This was the first permanent English settlement south of Pennsylvania and west of the Alleghanies. In 1779 James Robertson and others located where Nashville now stands, but where was then a wilderness. Tennessee was originally part of North Carolina. In 1784 its inhabitants formed the "State of Franklin" and set up an independent government. But North Carolina resumed control in a few years, and in 1790 ceded this region to the United States, whereupon Congress gave it a territorial government.

Ohio, the seventeenth State, was admitted to the Union February 19, 1803. It was so called from the river of that name, signifying the "beautiful river." The first explorations were made by the French, under La Salle, about 1669. The first permanent settlement was at Marietta, in 1788. Ohio was the first State carved out of the Northwest Territory (p. 163).

Louisiana, the eighteenth State, was admitted to the Union April 30, 1812. The name Louisiana was originally given to the entire Mississippi valley, in honor of Louis XIV., king of France, in 1682 (p. 39). New Orleans, founded in 1718, was the first important settlement in the present State. Earlier settlements were made along the Gulf coast, in what are now Mississippi and Alabama. In 1718 the colony was granted to the great Mississippi Company, organized by John Law, at Paris, for the purpose of settling and deriving profit from the French possessions in North America. In a fever of speculation the shares of this company rose in price to thirty or forty times their original value. When the bubble burst, the French crown resumed control of the country. The territory west of the river, together with New Orleans, was given to Spain in 1763, but in 1800 was ceded back to France. When the United States purchased it (p. 176), Louisiana included all the region between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains and north to the British possessions; also New Orleans and a strip of land along the Gulf coast east of the river, of disputed extent. In 1804 the entire region was divided into two parts—the Territory of Orleans, which included the present State of Louisiana, and the District of Louisiana, which comprised the remainder.

The former was admitted to the Union as Louisiana; the latter became the Territory of Louisiana in 1805, and its name was afterwards changed to Missouri Territory.

Indiana, the nineteenth State, was admitted to the Union December 11, 1816. The Territory of Indiana, established in 1800, at first included practically all of the Northwest Territory west of what is now Ohio. Indiana was the second State admitted from the Northwest Territory. After the Indian difficulties which hindered its early development had subsided, its growth was very rapid. Between 1810 and 1820 its population increased six hundred per cent.

Mississippi, the twentieth State, was admitted to the Union December 10, 1817. De Soto traversed this region in 1541. The French made a temporary settlement at Biloxi in 1699; and other settlements were established on the Mississippi soon after. In 1728 the Indians swept every vestige of civilization from the present limits of the State. Under the French governors who followed, fierce and bloody wars were waged with the Natch'ez, Chick'asaw, and Choctaw Indians; but in 1763 most of this region, with other French territory east of the Mississippi, was given to Great Britain. The Mississippi Territory was created in 1798, including land in dispute between Georgia and the United States. Lands ceded by South Carolina, Georgia, and France and Spain were afterwards added until it embraced the present States of Mississippi and Alabama. The latter became a separate Territory in March, 1817.

Illinois, the twenty-first State, was admitted to the Union December 3, 1818. Its first settlements were made by the French. The Illinois Territory, comprising the present States of Illinois, Wisconsin, and parts of Minnesota and Michigan, was established in 1809. The settlement of this Territory was greatly impeded by Indian hostilities. The massacre at Fort Dearborn (Chicago), in 1812, and the Black Hawk War are instances of the dangers and trials which beset the pioneer. The great prosperity of the State dates from the year 1850, when munificent grants of land were made to the Central Railroad. The prairie wilderness was rapidly settled, and towns and cities sprang up as by magic.

Alabama, the twenty-second State, was admitted to the Union December 14, 1819. It was a part of Mississippi Territory till 1817, when it was made a separate Territory. The fierce contests with the Creek Indians, ended by Jackson, opened to the settlers in Alabama a vast and fertile region. The first settlement was made by Bienville (be ăn-veel') on Mobile Bay in 1702. Nine years afterwards the present site of Mobile was occupied. Mobile was for many years the capital of French Louisiana. Having been ceded to Great Britain and then (as part of Florida) to Spain, in 1813 it was captured by the United States, which claimed it as part of Louisiana.

Maine, the twenty-third State, was admitted to the Union, with the consent of Massachusetts, March 15, 1820 (see pp. 66, 67).

Missouri, the twenty-fourth State, was admitted to the Union August 10, 1821. Its oldest town, Ste. Genevieve, was founded in 1755. St. Louis was settled nine years after, but was not incorporated as a town until 1809; its first newspaper was published in 1808, and the first steamboat arrived at its wharf in 1817. When the District of Louisiana was organized as Louisiana Territory in 1805, St. Louis was made its capital. On the admission of Louisiana, the name of the Territory was changed to Missouri. When Missouri became a State it was given its present limits, except the northwest corner, which was purchased from the Indians and added to Missouri in 1836.

Arkansas, the twenty-fifth State, was admitted to the Union June 15, 1836. It was explored and settled by the French under Chevalier de Tonty as early as 1685. Shortly before the admission of the State of Missouri, Arkansas was organized as a Territory, including the present State and a part of Indian Territory.

Michigan, the twenty-sixth State, was admitted to the Union January 26, 1837. It was early visited by missionaries (p. 38) and fur traders. Detroit was founded in 1701 by Cadillac. This region was first a part of the Northwest Territory and then of Indiana Territory; but the "lower peninsula" was organized as a separate Territory in 1805. The country north of the present State of Illinois was annexed to Michigan Territory in 1818, and that north of Missouri in 1834. The State was given its present boundaries in 1836.

Florida, the twenty-seventh State, was admitted to the Union March 3, 1845. Its early visitors,—Ponce de Leon, Narvaez, and De Soto,—its first settlement at St. Augustine, its history under the Spaniards, and the Seminole War are described in earlier pages of this book. After the purchase from Spain, the Territory of Florida was organized March 30, 1822.

Texas, the twenty-eighth State, was admitted to the Union December 29, 1845. It was explored by La Salle (p. 39). The Spaniards afterwards explored and partly settled the country, establishing missions at various points. These did not prosper, however, and the region was populated mainly by roving bands of Indians. Civil war had impoverished the few settlers who were unable to flee from the country, and Galveston was nearly deserted, when, in 1820, Moses Austin, a native of Connecticut, obtained from the Spanish authorities in Mexico a grant of land. Emigration from the United States was encouraged, and in 1830 there were 20,000 Americans in Texas. The jealousy of Mexico being excited, acts of oppression followed, and in 1835 the Texans were driven to begin a war for independence. In 1836 the Mexican President, Santa Anna, attacked the Alā'mo with 4000 men. The fort was garrisoned by only 172 men, and every one of that gallant few died at his post except seven, who were killed while asking for quarter. Here David Crockett, the famous hunter, who had volunteered to fight with the Texans for their liberty, fell, pierced with wounds, but surrounded by the corpses of those whom he had cut down before he was overpowered. In the battle of San Jacinto (map, p. 214), Santa Anna, with 1500 men, was defeated by 800 under General Sam Houston. Santa Anna was soon captured, and agreed to terms of peace. The next year (1837) Texas sought admission into the Union. In 1844 the question was revived. The close of Tyler's administration was marked by the signing of a resolution of Congress for its admission. This measure was ratified by Texas the same year. In 1850 the State gave up its claim to lands northwest of its present limits, including half of New Mexico and small parts of Oklahoma, Kansas, and Colorado (p. 224).

Iowa, the twenty-ninth State, was admitted to the Union December 28, 1846. Julien Du buque', a Canadian Frenchman, obtained, in 1788, a large tract of land, including the present site of Dubuque. He there built a fort and traded with the Indians till 1810. The first permanent settlement was made at Burlington, in 1833, by emigrants from Illinois. The same year Dubuque was founded. This region of the Louisiana purchase was successively a part of Missouri, Michigan, and Wisconsin Territories, but was organized separately in 1838. It then included the parts of Minnesota and the Dakotas between the Mississippi and Missouri rivers; but when admitted as a State it was reduced to its present limits.

Wisconsin, the thirtieth State, was admitted to the Union May 29, 1848. It was explored by French missionaries and traders as early as 1639. Green Bay was founded in 1745. This region was part of the Northwest Territory. It was comprised in the Territory of Illinois, then of Michigan, and in 1836 became a separate Territory.

California, the thirty-first State, was admitted to the Union September 9, 1850 (p. 224). Sir Francis Drake, in 1579, sailed along its coast, naming it New Albion (p. 41). In 1769 the Spaniards established the mission of San Diego (de a'go), and in 1776 one at

San Francisco. In 1803 they had eighteen missions with over 15,000 converts, and the government of the country was in the hands of Franciscan monks. The Mexican revolution, in 1822, overthrew the Spanish power in California, and, soon after, the Franciscans were stripped of their wealth and influence. In 1831 the white population did not exceed 5000. From 1843 to 1846 many emigrants from the United States settled in California. By the treaty at the close of the Mexican war, the United States acquired Upper California and New Mexico, embracing what are now known as California, Nevada, Utah, and parts of Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, and Wyoming. The town of San Francisco was known as Yerba Buena (*good herb*) until 1847, when it was given its present name. About that time it had a population of 459, and its chief business was a small trade in exporting hides. The discovery of gold in California gave the city its first great importance. Within eighteen months following December, 1849, the city lost by fire $16,000,000 worth of property, though its population did not exceed 30,000. Such, however, was the enterprise of its citizens that these tremendous losses scarcely interrupted its growth or prosperity.

Minnesota, the thirty-second State, was admitted to the Union May 11, 1858. In 1680 a French priest named Hennepin penetrated this region. Other travelers followed, but only within the nineteenth century was the whole country thoroughly explored. Fort Snelling was established in 1819. The first building in St. Paul was erected about 1838. The Territory of Minnesota was organized in 1849, with the Missouri and White Earth rivers for its western boundary, thus embracing nearly twice the area of the present State. At that time its population was less than 5000, consisting chiefly of whites and half-breeds settled about the various missions and trading posts. In 1851 the Sioux ceded a large tract of land to the United States. After this the population increased so rapidly that in six years Minnesota applied for admission into the Union.

Oregon, the thirty-third State, was admitted to the Union February 14, 1859. In 1792 Captain Gray, of Boston, entered the river to which he gave the name of his ship — Columbia. On his return he made such a flattering report that there was a general desire to know more of the country. After the Lewis and Clark expedition (p. 178) an extensive fur trade soon began. Fort Astoria was built in 1811 by the American Fur Company, of which John Jacob Astor was a prominent member. Hunters and trappers in the employ of American and British companies roamed over the whole region. Fort Vancouver was occupied by the Hudson Bay Company, a British organization, till 1860. After 1836, and especially after 1842, American emigration set overland to this region. The danger of war, which had seriously threatened its dawning prosperity, was averted when the northwest boundary was settled by the treaty of 1846. In 1848 Oregon was organized as a Territory, and included all the land west of the Rocky Mountains between the parallels of 42° and 49° north latitude. In 1850 Congress granted three hundred and twenty acres to every man, and the same to his wife, on condition of residence on the land for four years. Eight thousand claims were made for farms. In 1853 the northern part of Oregon was cut off and constituted Washington Territory; and in 1859 the present eastern limit of Oregon was established.

Kansas, the thirty-fourth State, was admitted to the Union January 29, 1861. Nearly all of this region was part of the Louisiana purchase. After the States of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, and Iowa, and Minnesota Territory had been carved from that purchase, there was left a vast unoccupied tract west of the Missouri River, which was organized by the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854. The territorial government of Kansas was proslavery (p. 228), but when the people came to vote on the adoption of a State constitution, the majority were shown to be antislavery.

EPOCH IV. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATES.

1. Washington's Administration. (1789-97.)
   1. Inauguration.
   2. Difficulties of the New Government.
   3. Domestic Affairs.
      a. Finances.
      b. National Capital.
      c. Cotton Gin.
      d. Whisky Rebellion.
      e. Indian Wars.
   4. Foreign Affairs.
      a. Great Britain.
      b. Spain and Algiers.
      c. France.
   5. Political Parties.
2. John Adams's Administration. (1797-1801.)
   1. Domestic Affairs. — Alien and Sedition Laws.
   2. Foreign Affairs. — France.
   3. Political Parties.
3. Jefferson's Administration. (1801-09.)
   1. Purchase of Louisiana.
   2. Domestic Affairs.
      a. Lewis and Clark Expedition.
      b. Twelfth Amendment.
      c. Aaron Burr.
      d. Fulton's Steamboat.
   3. Foreign Affairs.
      a. War with Tripoli.
      b. Great Britain and France.
   4. Political Parties.
4. Madison's Administration. (1809-17.)
   1. Domestic Affairs. — Battle of Tippecanoe.
   2. Foreign Affairs — War with Great Britain.
      a. Causes.
      b. War on Land, 1812, 1813, 1814.
      c. War on Sea, 1812, 1813.
      d. Peace.
      e. Battle of New Orleans.
      f. Results of the War.
   3. Political Parties.
5. Monroe's Administration. (1817-25.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      a. Missouri Compromise.
      b. Lafayette's Visit.
   2. Foreign Affairs.
      a. Great Britain.
      b. Florida.
      c. Monroe Doctrine.
   3. Political Parties.
6. John Quincy Adams's Administration. (1825-29.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      a. Protective Tariff.
      b. Erie Canal, etc.
   2. Political Parties.
7. Jackson's Administration. (1829-37.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      a. Rotation in Office.
      b. Nullification.
      c. Bank of United States.
      d. Speculation.
      e. Indian Troubles.
   2. Foreign Affairs. — France.
   3. Political Parties.
8. Van Buren's Administration. (1837-41.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      a. Crisis of 1837.
      b. Subtreasury Bill.
   2. Foreign Affairs. — Canadian "Patriot War."
   3. Political Parties.
9. Harrison and Tyler's Administration. (1841-45.)
   1. Harrison's Death.
   2. Domestic Affairs.
      a. United States Bank.
      b. Suffrage Difficulties (R. I.).
      c. Anti-Rent Difficulties (N. Y.)
      d. Magnetic Telegraph.
      e. The Mormons.
   3. Foreign Affairs.
      a. Northeast Boundary.
      b. Annexation of Texas.
   4. Political Parties.
10. Polk's Administration. (1845-49.)
   1. Foreign Affairs.
      a. War with Mexico (1846-47).
      b. Northwest Boundary.
   2. Domestic Affairs.
      a. Wilmot Proviso.
      b. Discovery of Gold in California.
   3. Political Parties.
11. Taylor and Fillmore's Administration. (1849-53.)
   1. Taylor's Death.
   2. Domestic Affairs. — Compromise of 1850.
   3. Foreign Affairs. — Cuba.
   4. Political Parties.
12. Pierce's Administration. (1853-57.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      a. Kansas-Nebraska Bill.
      b. Border Warfare.
   2. Foreign Affairs.
      a. Mexico.
      b. Japan.
   3. Political Parties.
13. Buchanan's Administration. (1857-61.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      a. Dred Scott Decision.
      b. Fugitive Slave Law.
      c. John Brown.
   2. Political Parties.
   3. The South Secedes.
   4. Fort Sumter.
14. Society before the Civil War.
15. Industrial History.
16. New States. (1789-1861.)
   1. Free States.
   2. Slave States.

EPOCH V.—THE CIVIL WAR (1861–1865)

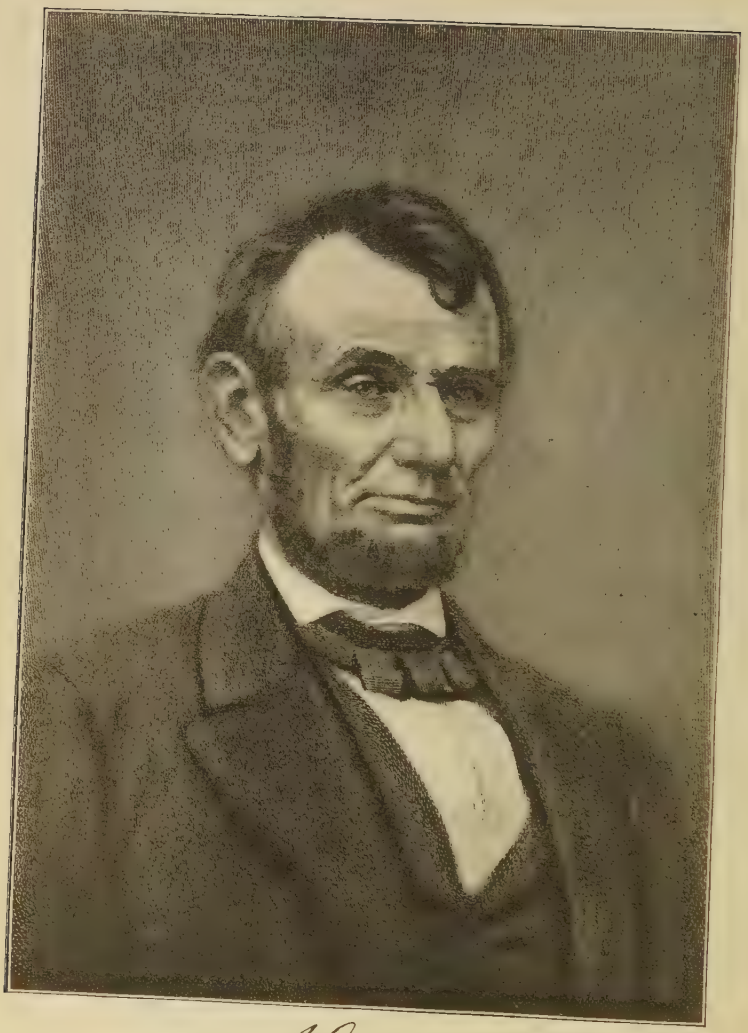
(LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION)[1]

1861

Rumors of a plan to assassinate Lincoln impelled him to come to Washington secretly. He was inaugurated March 4, 1861, surrounded by troops under General Scott.

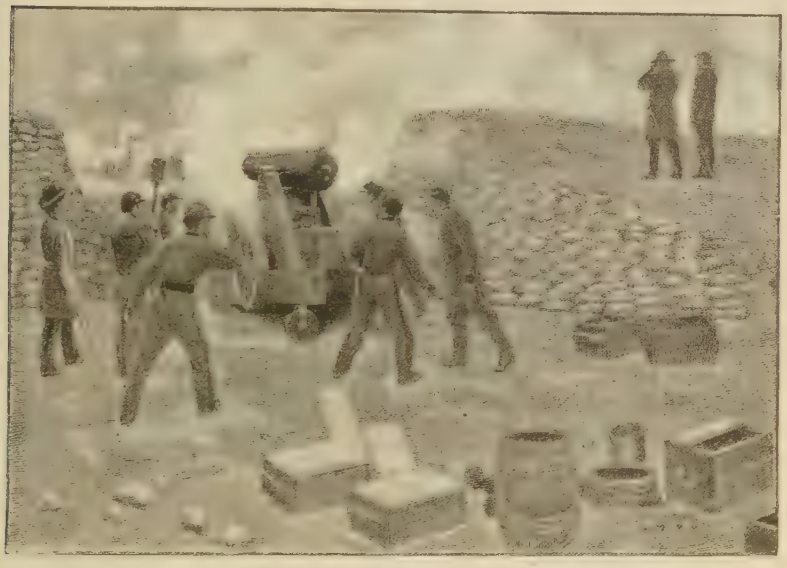
Condition of the Country.— All was now uncertainty. Southern officers in the army and navy of the United States were daily resigning and linking their fortunes with the Confederate cause. There was still, however, a strong Union sentiment in the South. Many prominent men in both sections hoped that war might be averted. The Federal authorities feared to act, lest they should precipitate civil strife. In striking contrast to this indecision was the marked energy of the new Confederate government. It was gathering troops, voting money and supplies, and rapidly preparing for the issue.

[1] Abraham Lincoln was born in Kentucky, February 12, 1809; died in Washington, April 15, 1865. His father was unable to read or write, and his own education consisted of one year's schooling. Hoping to better his fortune, the father moved to Indiana, the family floating down the Ohio on a raft. When nineteen years of age the future President hired out at $10 a month as a hand on a flatboat, and made a trip to New Orleans. On his return he accompanied the family to Illinois, driving the cattle on the journey. Having reached their destination, he helped them to build a cabin, and to split rails to inclose the farm. He was now, in succession, a flatboat hand, clerk, captain of a company of volunteers in the Black Hawk War, country storekeeper, postmaster, and surveyor; yet he managed to get a knowledge of law by borrowing books at an office before it closed at night, returning them at its opening in the morning. On being admitted to the bar, he rapidly rose to distinction. At twenty-five he was sent to the legislature, and was thrice reëlected. In 1846 he was elected to Congress, and served one term as representative. In 1858 he was candidate for senator



A. Lincoln.

Capture of Fort Sumter (April 13).—Finding that supplies were to be sent to Fort Sumter, General Peter G. T. Beauregard (bō′re gard), who had command of the Confederate troops at Charleston, called upon Major Ander-



BOMBARDMENT OF FORT SUMTER

son to surrender. Upon his refusal, fire was opened from all the Confederate forts and batteries.[1] This "strange

a second time, against Stephen A. Douglas. The two rivals stumped the State together, discussing great national questions. The debate, unrivaled for its statesmanship, logic, and wit, won for Lincoln a national reputation, but he lost the election in the legislature. After his accession to the presidency, his history, like Washington's, is identified with that of his country. He was a tall, ungainly man, little versed in the refinements of society, but gifted by nature with great common sense, and everywhere known as "Honest Abe." Kind, earnest, sympathetic, faithful, democratic, he was anxious only to serve his country. His wan, fatigued face and his bent form told of the cares he bore and the grief he felt. His only relief was when, tossing aside for a moment the heavy load of responsibility, his face would light up with a humorous smile while he narrated some incident whose irresistible wit and aptness to the subject at hand convulsed his hearers, and rendered "Lincoln's stories" household words throughout the nation.

[1] The first gun was fired at half-past four o'clock Friday morning, April 12, 1861. Anderson surrendered April 13 and marched out April 14.

125
120
115
110
105
100
50
45
40
35
30
25
Vancouver I.
C. Flattery
Port Townsend
Seattle
Ft. Colville
WASHINGTON TERR.
OLYMPIA
Columbia R.
Portland
Oregon City
SALEM
OREGON
1859
Lewiston
Ft. Benton
Missouri R.
Ft. Williams
DAKOTA TERRITOR
Snake R.
Ft. Hall
BLACK HILLS
Ft. Pierre
Missouri
Wounded Knee
Lava Beds
C. Mendocino
NEVADA TER.
CARSON CITY
Great Salt Lake
Ogden
GREAT SALT LAKE CITY
UTAH TER.
NEBRASK
TERRITO
Platte
Marysville
SACRAMENTO
Stockton
San Francisco
San Jose
DENVER
COLORADO TERRITORY
Pueblo
KAN
18
Los Angeles
San Diego
Colorado R.
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY
Albuquerque
SANTA FÉ
Canadian R.
Gila R.
Tucson
El Paso
Fort W
SECO
TE
X
AUSTI
San Antonio de Bexar
Rio Grande
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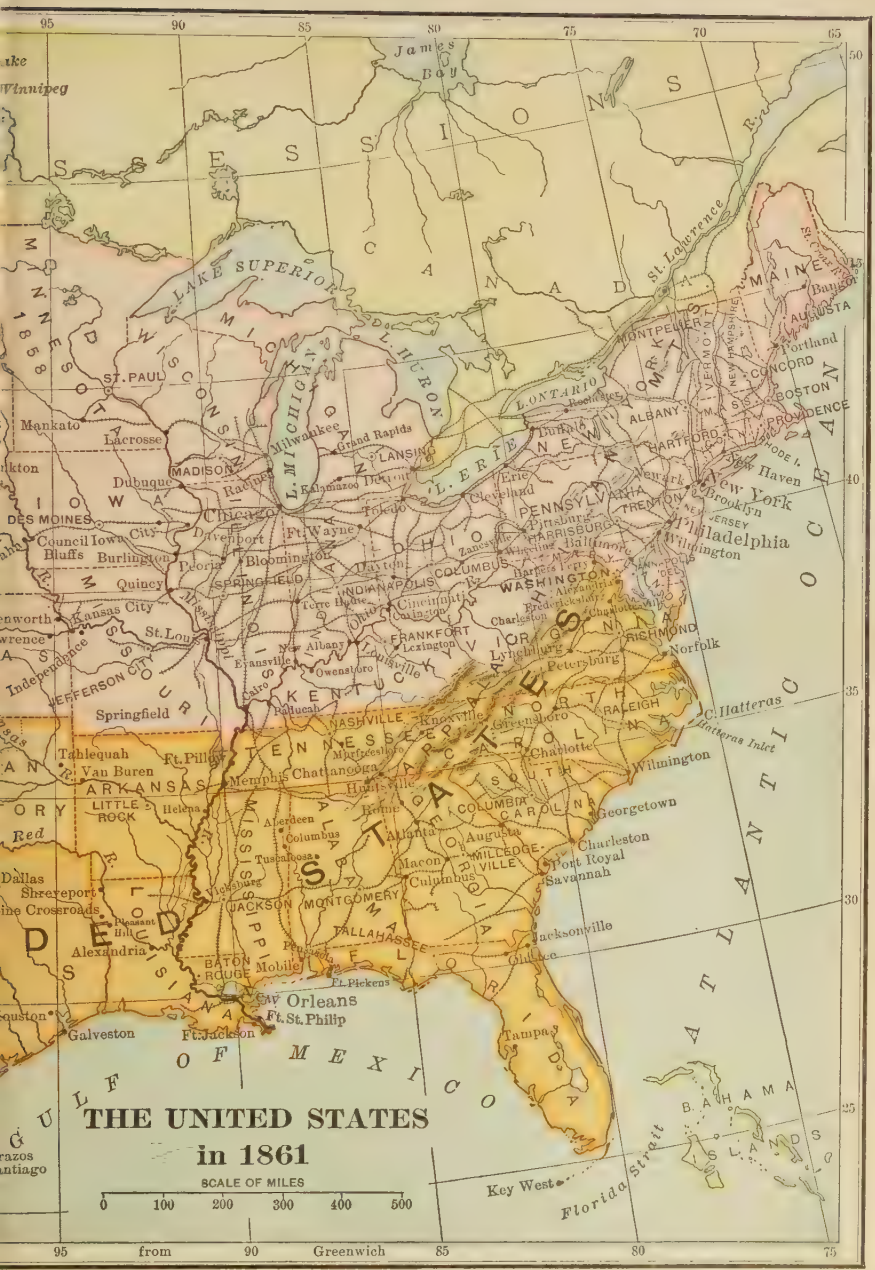
Chri
PACIFIC OCEAN
LOWER CALIFORNIA
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
MEXICO
115
110
105
Longitude
100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James Bay
Winnipeg
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ERIE
LAKE ONTARIO
St. Lawrence R.
MINNESOTA
1858
ST. PAUL
WISCONSIN
MADISON
MILWAUKEE
Grand Rapids
LANSING
Kalamazoo
Detroit
Toledo
Cleveland
Erie
Buffalo
Rochester
Syracuse
Albany
Utica
Troy
Boston
Portland
Augusta
MAINE
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
RHODE I.
CONCORD
PROVINCE
Mankato
La Crosse
Dubuque
Racine
Chicago
Ft. Wayne
Dayton
Columbus
Zanesville
Wheeling
Pittsburg
Harrisburg
Baltimore
Washington
Philadelphia
Wilmington
New York
Brooklyn
Newark
Trenton
Jersey City
New Haven
Hartford
Providence
IOWA
DES MOINES
Council Bluffs
Burlington
Davenport
Peoria
Bloomington
SPRINGFIELD
Quincy
Terre Haute
Indianapolis
Cincinnati
Covington
Dayton
Springfield
Kansas City
St. Louis
Jefferson City
Independence
Alton
Cairo
New Albany
Evansville
Owensboro
Louisville
Frankfort
Lexington
Charleston
Richmond
Norfolk
Petersburg
Lynchburg
Fredericksburg
Alexandria
Chambersburg
Gettysburg
Harrisburg
Lancaster
Reading
Pottsville
Easton
Trenton
Perth Amboy
Jersey City
Newark
Brooklyn
New York
Long Island
Sandy Hook
Cape May
Delaware Bay
Delaware R.
Chesapeake Bay
Hampton Roads
Cape Henry
Cape Charles
Eastern Shore
Atlantic Ocean
Hatteras Inlet
Cape Hatteras
Raleigh
Greensboro
Knoxville
Nashville
Murfreesboro
Chattanooga
Memphis
Huntsville
Charlotte
Wilmington
Georgetown
Charleston
Port Royal
Savannah
Columbia
Augusta
Atlanta
Macon
Milledgeville
Columbus
Montgomery
Tuscaloosa
Selma
Talladega
Jacksonville
Tallahassee
Pensacola
Mobile
Ft. Pickens
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Ft. St. Philip
Ft. Jackson
Galveston
Tampa
Key West
Florida Strait
Bahama Islands
Gulf of Mexico
Tahlequah
Van Buren
Ft. Pillow
Arkansas
Little Rock
Helena
Red
Dallas
Shreveport
Crossroads
Pleasant Hill
Alexandria
Natchitoches
Vicksburg
Jackson
Aberdeen
Columbus
Tennessee
Mississippi
Alabama
Georgia
Florida
Carolina
Virginia
Kentucky
Missouri
Indiana
Ohio
Illinois
Iowa
Minnesota
Wisconsin
Michigan
Canada
Nova Scotia
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
St. Lawrence R.
Mississippi R.
Red R.
Rio Grande
Texas
Arkansas
Louisiana
Mexico
Gulf of Mexico
Atlantic Ocean
THE UNITED STATES
in 1861
SCALE OF MILES
0
100
200
300
400
500
95
from
90
Greenwich
85
80
75

contest between seventy men and seven thousand" lasted for thirty-four hours, no one being hurt on either side. The barracks having been set on fire by the shells, the garrison, worn out, suffocated, and half blinded, were forced to capitulate. They were allowed to retire with the honors of war, saluting their flag before hauling it down.

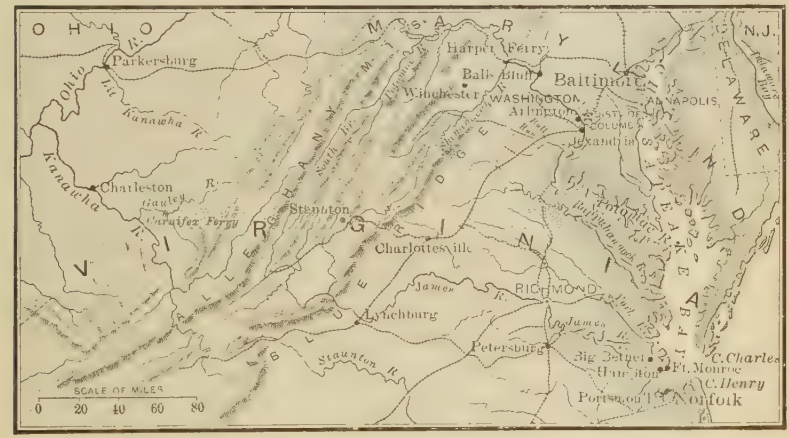
The Effect of this event was electrical. It unified the North, and also the South. The war spirit swept over the country like wildfire. Party lines vanished. Many Union men in the South were borne into secession, while Republicans and Democrats in the North combined to support the government. Lincoln issued a call on the States for 75,000 militia, to serve for three months. It was responded to by a greater number of men, and the American flag, the symbol of Revolutionary glory and of national unity, was unfurled throughout the North. The military enthusiasm in the South was equally ardent. Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee, which had before hesitated, joined the Confederacy. Virginia troops seized the United States arsenal at Harpers Ferry and the navy yard near Norfolk. Troops from the extreme South were rapidly pushed into Virginia, and threatened Washington. The Sixth Massachusetts Regiment, hurrying to the defense of the national capital, was attacked in the streets of Baltimore, and several men

CONFEDERATE CAPITOL AT RICHMOND.

were killed. This was the first bloodshed in the Civil War, and it occurred on April 19, the anniversary of Lexington and Concord. In May, Richmond, Va., was made the Confederate capital.

THE WAR IN THE EAST

Arlington Heights and Alexandria, opposite Washington, were seized (May 24) by the national troops. This protected the capital from immediate danger of attack. Fort Monroe, a formidable fortification near the entrance to Chesapeake Bay, was now garrisoned by a heavy force under General B. F. Butler.[1] In an expedition made soon



WAR IN THE EAST, 1861.

after against Big Bethel, the troops fired into each other by mistake, and when they came to attack the Confederate defenses they were repulsed with loss.

Western Virginia adhered to the Union, and was ultimately formed into a separate State. The Confederates,

[1] At Hampton, which had been occupied by the Confederates, some negroes were captured who had been employed in building fortifications. Butler declared them "contraband of war," and this gave rise to the popular use of the term "contraband" to mean negro slaves who were set free by Federal soldiers.

however, occupied it in force. The Federals, under General George B. McClellan, defeated them in several battles, wresting most of the region from their control. Shortly afterwards a Confederate force was sent into the Kanawha (ka naw'wa) valley; but part of it was defeated by General Rosecrans at CARNIFEX FERRY, and the Confederates were soon forced to withdraw. Almost the only Union victories of this year were achieved in this part of Virginia.

Battle of Bull Run (July 21).—The Northern people, seeing many regiments gathered at Washington, were impatient for an advance. The cry "On to Richmond!" became too strong to be resisted. General Irvin McDowell, with the Army of the Potomac, moved to attack the main body of the Confederates, which was strongly posted, under Beauregard, at Bull Run. After a sharp conflict, the Confederate left was driven from its position. It was rallied, however, on the brigades of General T. J. Jackson[1] and others, on a plateau in the rear. While the Federal troops were struggling to drive them from this new position, at the crisis of the battle, several brigades, under Kirby Smith,[2] Early, and others, coming up from the west, successively struck the Union flank and finally drove it in confusion. The retreat became a panic-stricken rout, many of the fugitives never stopping till they were safe at Alexandria and Arlington.

[1] General Bee, as he rallied his men, shouted: "There's Jackson standing like a stone wall!" "From that time," says Draper, "the name he had received in a baptism of fire displaced that he had received in a baptism of water, and he was known as 'Stonewall Jackson.'"

[2] Jackson's and Smith's brigades formed part of General Joseph E. Johnston's command, which came from Winchester. General Patterson, with 11,000 men, had been left to watch Johnston and prevent his joining Beauregard. Johnston was too shrewd for his antagonist, and, slipping away, reached Bull Run with 6000 men the day before the battle, while more of his men arrived just at the crisis of the struggle. The number of Union men who were actually engaged at Bull Run was about 18,000; the number of Confederates engaged, somewhat greater.

The Effect of this defeat was momentous. At first the Northern people were chagrined and disheartened. Then came a renewed determination. They saw the true character of the war, and no longer dreamed that the South could be easily overawed. They were to fight a brave people — Americans, who were to be conquered only by a desperate struggle. Congress voted to enlist 500,000 men.

SOLDIERS' MONUMENT, BATTLEFIELD OF BULL RUN.

General McClellan, hero of the brilliant campaign in western Virginia, was appointed to the command of the Army of the Potomac, and soon after, upon General Scott's retirement, became general in chief of all the Federal armies.

Balls Bluff (October 21). — About 2000 Federals, who had crossed the Potomac at Balls Bluff on a reconnoitering expedition, were attacked by the Confederates and forced down the bluff to the river. Only about half their number succeeded in reaching the other bank.[1]

[1] Colonel Baker, United States senator from Oregon, was among the killed.

THE WAR IN THE WEST

Missouri was largely Union, and did not secede; yet Governor Jackson of this State tried to carry it into the Confederacy, or at least to preserve an armed neutrality. Captain Lyon foiled this attempt. He saved the United States arsenal at St. Louis, and easily defeated the governor's troops. A few weeks later, however, Lyon, now General, found that he must either fight the superior forces of Generals McCulloch and Price, or else abandon the southern part of the State. At the head of about 6000, he attacked more than twice that number at WILSONS CREEK (August 10). He fell, gallantly leading a charge, and his men were defeated. Soon after, LEXINGTON[1] was forced to surrender, after a brave defense. But before long the Confederates were crowded south to Arkansas.

WAR IN THE WEST, 1861.

Kentucky, like Missouri, did not secede, and tried to remain neutral. Soon both Confederate and Union troops were encamped on her soil, and the State was ravaged by hostile armies.[2]

[1] The Confederates, in their final assault, fought behind a movable breastwork composed of hemp bales, which they rolled toward the fort as they advanced.

[2] In all the border States affairs were in a most lamentable condition. The people were divided in opinion, and some enlisted in each army. As the tide of war surged to

THE WAR ON THE SEA AND ON THE COAST

Early in the war Davis issued a proclamation offering to commission privateers.[1] In reply, Lincoln declared a blockade of the Southern ports. At that time there were but few efficient vessels on the Northern coast, and the entire Federal navy comprised only forty-two ships; but at the close of the year the navy numbered two hundred and sixty-four.

Two joint naval and military expeditions were made during the year. The first captured the forts at Hatteras Inlet, N. C. The second took the forts at Port Royal Entrance, S. C. Port Royal became a great depot for the Union fleet (map, p. 253).

The Trent Affair —Great Britain and France had acknowledged the Confederate States as belligerents, thus placing them on the same footing with the United States in respect to military operations. Having, therefore, great hopes of foreign aid, the Southern people appointed Messrs. Mason and Slidell commissioners to those countries. Escaping through the blockading squadron, they took passage at Havana on the British steamer *Trent*. Captain Wilkes, of the United States steamer *San Jacinto*, intercepted the *Trent*, took off the Confederate envoys, and brought them back to the United States. This produced intense excitement in England. Lincoln, however, promptly disavowed the act and returned the prisoners.

and fro, armed bands swept through the country, plundering and murdering those who favored the opposite party.

[1] The *Savannah* was the first privateer which got to sea, but she was captured after having taken only one prize. The *Petrel*, another privateer, bore down upon the United States frigate *St. Lawrence*, which the captain mistook for a merchant ship; his vessel was sunk by a single broadside of his formidable antagonist. The *Beauregard* also was captured, and the operations of other privateers were stopped by the blockade within a year. Thereafter Northern commerce was attacked by cruisers (p. 300).

General Review of the First Year of the War.— The Confederates had seized most of the forts and arsenals in the South, including Fort Sumter and the large arsenals at Harpers Ferry and near Norfolk. They had been successful in the two great battles of the year—Bull Run and Wilsons Creek; also in several minor engagements. The Federals had saved Fort Pickens[1] and Fort Monroe, and captured the forts at Hatteras Inlet and Port Royal. They had also gained several minor victories. They had saved Missouri, Maryland, and western Virginia to the Union. Principally, however, they had thrown the whole South into a state of siege—the armies on the north and the west by land, and the navy on the east by sea, maintaining a vigilant blockade.

COLLATERAL READING

Bull Run.—Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. vi. pp. 76–81.

1862

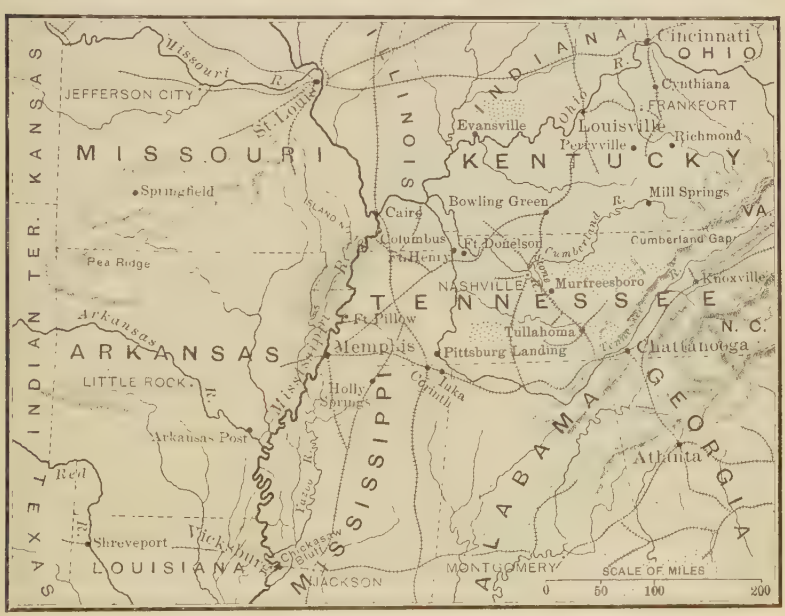
The Situation.— The Federal armies now numbered 500,000; the Confederate, about 350,000. The Northern campaign of 1862 had three main objects: (1) the opening of the Mississippi; (2) the blockade of the Southern ports, and (3) the capture of Richmond.

THE WAR IN THE WEST

West of the Appalachian Mountains the Confederates held a line of defense with strongly fortified posts at Columbus, Fort Henry, Fort Don'elson, Bowling Green, Mill Springs, and Cumberland Gap. The Federal army acted on the offensive.

[1] This fort was situated near Pensacola. Lieutenant Slemmer, seeing that an attack was about to be made upon him, transferred his men from Fort McRae, an untenable position, to Fort Pickens, an almost impregnable fortification, which he held until reënforcements arrived.

Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson.— Early in February, General Grant with an army and Flag Officer Foote with his gunboats advanced upon Fort Henry.[1] A bombardment (February 6) from the gunboats reduced the place in about an hour. The land troops were to cut off the retreat; but as they did not arrive in time, the garri-



WAR IN THE WEST, 1862.

son escaped to Fort Donelson. The fleet now went back to the Ohio, and ascended the Cumberland, while Grant crossed to coöperate in an attack on Fort Donelson. The fight lasted three days.[2] The fleet was repulsed by the

[1] Though Grant's movement was the first great blow at the Confederate line, there had been an earlier one of considerable importance. In January, General Thomas had advanced against MILL SPRINGS, and, on the 19th, defeated the Confederate force near that place, with the loss of General Zollicoffer, a favorite Southern leader.

[2] For four nights of inclement winter weather, amid snow and sleet, with no tents, shelter, or fire, and many with no blankets, the hardy Western troops under Grant maintained their position. The wounded suffered intensely, and numbers of them froze to death as they lay on the icy ground.

fire from the fort; but Grant, having been reënforced till he had nearly 30,000 men, outfought the Confederates. As he was about to make the final assault, the fort was surrendered[1] (February 16), with about 15,000 men.[2]

Effect of these Victories.— Bowling Green and Columbus, the latter deemed almost impregnable, were now evacuated by the Confederates, while General Buell at once occupied Nashville with a Union army. The Confederates fell back to Corinth and Island No. 10,[3] and were reënforced. A large Union army ascended the Tennessee to Pittsburg Landing. Grant was placed in command, and General Buell was ordered to join him.

Battle of Shiloh (April 6, 7).—Generals Albert Sidney Johnston and Beauregard led the Confederates from Corinth in an attempt to rout Grant's army before the arrival of Buell. On Sunday morning at daylight, moving out of the woods in line of battle, they suddenly fell on the Union camps, which had not been intrenched. The Federals slowly yielded, but for twelve hours obstinately disputed every inch of the way. At last, pushed to the very brink of the river, Grant massed his artillery, and gathered about it the fragments of regiments for a final stand. The Confederates, to meet them, had to cross a deep ravine, where, struggling through the mud and water, they melted away under the fire of cannon and musketry

[1] When General Buckner, commander of the fort, wrote to General Grant offering capitulation, Grant replied: "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." This message was much quoted, and U. S. Grant was often said to signify "Unconditional Surrender Grant."

[2] West of the Mississippi, about this time, General Curtis pushed General Price out of Missouri into Arkansas. The Confederates, by great exertion, increased their army to 20,000, General Van Dorn now taking command. General Curtis, in a desperate battle, totally defeated him at PEA RIDGE (March 7, 8). Some four or five thousand Indians had joined the Confederate army, and took part in this battle.

[3] The islands in the Mississippi are numbered in order from the mouth of the Ohio to New Orleans.

from above and the shells from the gunboats beyond. At the same time Buell's advance came shouting on the field. The tide of battle was already stayed. The Confederates fell back. They possessed, however, the substantial fruits of victory. They had taken the Union camps, many prisoners, thirty flags, and immense stores; but they had lost their commander, General Albert Sidney Johnston.

The next morning the tide turned. Part of Buell's army had come, and fresh troops were poured on the

BATTLE OF SHILOH.

wearied Confederates. Beauregard, obstinately resisting, was driven from the field. He retreated, however, in good order, and, unmolested, returned to Corinth.

General Halleck now assumed command, and by slow stages followed the Confederates. Beauregard, finding himself outnumbered, evacuated Corinth (May 30).

Island No. 10.—The Confederates on Island No. 10 and

the neighboring shore east of the river were bombarded by Flag Officer Foote for three weeks with little effect. General Pope, crossing the Mississippi, took the batteries on the east bank, in the rear of the Confederate position. The garrison on Island No. 10 surrendered to Foote (April 7), but most of the Confederates were captured by Pope a few hours later.

The Effects of these battles were soon fully apparent.[1] The Union gunboats moved down the river and (May 10) defeated the Confederate ironclad fleet. On the evacuation of Corinth, Fort Pillow was abandoned by the Confederates. The gunboats, proceeding, destroyed the Confederate flotilla in front of Memphis, and took possession of that city. Kentucky and western Tennessee had been wrenched from the Confederacy. The Union army[2] now held a line running from Memphis through Corinth nearly to Chattanoo'ga, toward which point General Buell was steadily pushing his troops.

Bragg's Expedition.— Generals Smith[3] and Bragg, of the Confederates, now took the offensive; they invaded Kentucky and held large parts of it for several weeks. When Bragg began his invasion from Chattanooga, General Buell fell back to Nashville, and then hurried to reach the Ohio River ahead of the enemy. At Louisville he was heavily reënforced, and soon moved out to give battle. At PERRYVILLE (October 8) a desperate battle was fought.

[1] Besides the results here named, the concentration of troops at Corinth had absorbed the troops from the South. Thus New Orleans, as we shall see hereafter, fell an easy prey to Farragut (pp. 266, 267).

[2] General Halleck having been called to Washington as general in chief of the armies of the United States, General Grant was appointed to the command of this army.

[3] Smith moved from Knoxville through the Cumberland Gap, routed a Union force under General Manson at Richmond, Ky., inflicting a heavy loss, and then moved north as far as Cynthiana. There he threatened to attack both Cincinnati and Louisville.

In the darkness, however, Bragg left the field, and, joined by Smith, soon retreated safely by way of Cumberland Gap, with wagon trains many miles long.

Battles of Iuka and Corinth.—Every one of Grant's veterans who could possibly be spared had been sent north to help Buell. The Confederates Price and Van Dorn, taking advantage of the opportunity, were maneuvering to get possession of Corinth. Grant boldly sent Rosecrans to capture Price at Iuka, but after a severe conflict (September 19) the latter escaped. Thereupon, the two Confederate generals joined their forces and attacked Rosecrans in his intrenchments at Corinth (October 4). The Confederates exhibited brilliant courage, but were defeated with heavy loss and pursued forty miles.

Battle of Murfreesboro (December 31, January 2).—Shortly after the battles of Corinth and Perryville, Rosecrans superseded Buell, and concentrated his new forces at Nashville. Thence he marched to attack Bragg, who had established his army at Murfreesboro. Both generals formed the same plan[1] for the approaching contest. As the Union left was crossing Stone River to attack the Confederate right, the strong Confederate left fell heavily on the weak Union right, crushing it back on the Union center. Here Thomas held firm, and Rosecrans was enabled to establish a new line, at right angles with the old. Upon this new front the Confederates charged four times, but were driven back. The Union left, meanwhile, was recalled, and Rosecrans remained on the defensive. Two days after, Bragg attacked the Union left, but was repulsed, and soon retreated to Tullahoma. This was

[1] The plan was to mass the strength on the left, and with that to fall upon and crush the enemy's right. The advantage lay with the army which struck first. Bragg secured the initiative, and Rosecrans's only course was to give up all thought of an attack and endeavor to save his right from a rout.

one of the bloodiest contests of the war, the loss being about one fourth of the number engaged. . Its effect was to reduce Bragg's force from an offensive to a defensive attitude.

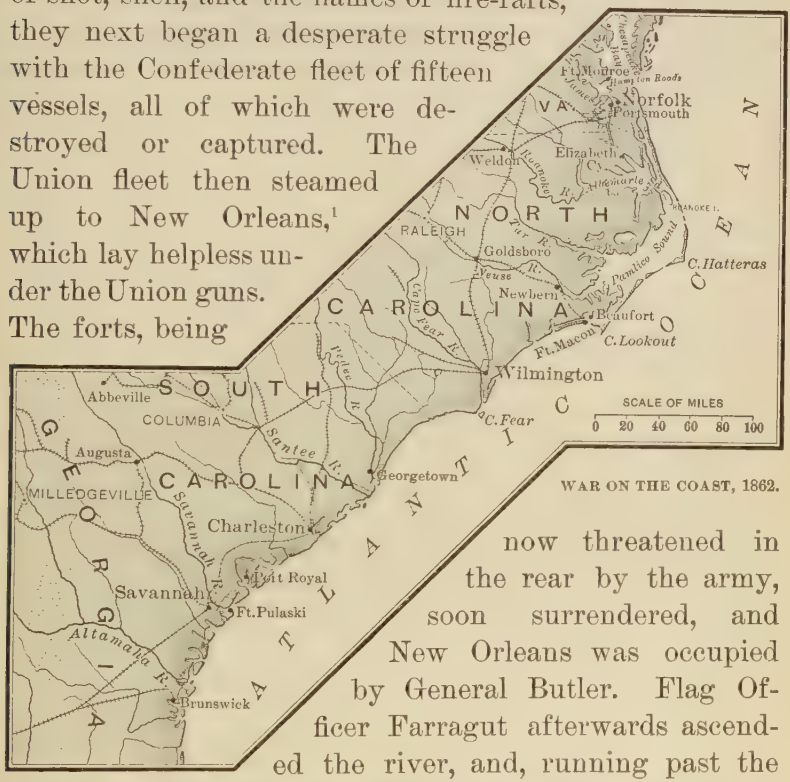
First Vicksburg Expedition.— While Rosecrans was moving against Bragg, an expedition against Vicksburg had been planned by Grant. But, by a brilliant cavalry dash, Van Dorn destroyed Grant's depot of supplies at HOLLY SPRINGS, and thus spoiled the plan. Meanwhile, Sherman, under Grant's orders, descended the Mississippi to coöperate in the expedition. He made an attack at CHICKASAW BLUFF, north of Vicksburg; but after suffering a bloody repulse, and learning of Grant's misfortune, he fell back. This campaign was closed by the capture of ARKANSAS POST (January 11, 1863) by a combined army and naval force.

THE WAR ON THE SEA AND ON THE COAST

Capture of New Orleans (April 25).— The effort to open the Mississippi was not confined to the North. Early in the spring Flag Officer Farragut, with a fleet of over forty vessels, carrying a land force under General Butler, attempted the capture of New Orleans. The mortar boats, dressed out with leafy branches to render them indistinguishable from the green woods, were anchored along the bank of the river below the city, and threw thirteen-inch shells into Forts Jackson and St. Philip for six days and nights. Farragut then boldly resolved to carry the fleet past these defenses of New Orleans. At about three o'clock in the morning (April 24) the gunboats[1] advanced, and poured grape and canister into the forts at short

[1] The vessels were made partly ironclad by looping chain cables in two layers over their sides, and their engines were protected by bags of sand, coal, etc.

range, receiving in return heavy volleys from the forts and batteries on shore. After running a fearful gantlet of shot, shell, and the flames of fire-rafts, they next began a desperate struggle with the Confederate fleet of fifteen vessels, all of which were destroyed or captured. The Union fleet then steamed up to New Orleans,[1] which lay helpless under the Union guns. The forts, being now threatened in the rear by the army, soon surrendered, and New Orleans was occupied by General Butler. Flag Officer Farragut afterwards ascended the river, and, running past the batteries at Vicksburg, joined the Union fleet above.



WAR ON THE COAST, 1862.

The Atlantic Coast.— Burnside's expedition against Roanoke Island was an important step toward the enforcement of the blockade. The Confederate forts were cap-

[1] Steamers, sailing ships, vast quantities of cotton, etc., were now burned to prevent their falling into Federal hands. Pollard says: "No sooner had the Federal fleet turned the point and come within sight of the city, than the work of destruction commenced. Vast columns of smoke darkened the face of heaven and obscured the noonday sun; for five miles along the levee fierce flames darted through the lurid atmosphere. Great ships and steamers wrapped in fire floated down the river, threatening the Federal vessels with destruction. Fifteen thousand bales of cotton, worth one million and a half of dollars, were consumed. About a dozen large river steamboats,

tured and the ships destroyed.[1] Then Newbern, Elizabeth City, and Fort Macon, at the entrance to Beaufort (bō′furt) harbor, were taken. Thus most of the North Carolina coast, with its intricate network of water communication, fell into Union hands.

Port Royal, after its capture (1861), became the base of operations against Florida and Georgia, resulting in the capture of several coast towns. Fort Pulaski, also, was reduced after a severe bombardment, and thus the port of Savannah was closed.

At the end of the year every city of the Atlantic seacoast, except Savannah, Charleston, and Wilmington, was held by the Federal armies.

The Merrimac and the Monitor.—Early in the afternoon of March 8 the long-dreaded ironclad *Merrimac*[2] steamed from Norfolk into Hampton Roads. Steering directly for the Federal sloop of war *Cumberland*, whose terrific broadsides glanced harmlessly "like so many peas" from the *Merrimac's* iron roof, she struck the *Cumberland* squarely with her iron beak, making a large hole in the ship's side, and thus sinking her.[3] Thus warned, the captain of the frigate *Congress* ran his vessel ashore; but the *Merrimac* fired shells into the frigate till the helpless

twelve or fifteen ships, a great floating battery, several unfinished gunboats, the immense ram *Mississippi*, and the docks on the other side of the river were all embraced in the fiery sacrifice."

[1] Roanoke Island, the scene of Raleigh's colonization scheme (p. 43), was the key to the rear defenses of Norfolk. "It unlocked two sounds, eight rivers, four canals, and two railroads." It afforded a convenient station for ships, and exposed a large country to attack.

[2] When the United States navy yard near Norfolk, Va., was given up (p. 254), the steam frigate *Merrimac*, the finest in the service, was scuttled. The Confederates afterwards raised this vessel, razeed the deck, added an iron prow and a sloping iron-plated roof, and rechristened the vessel the *Virginia*. The ship was commanded by Commodore Franklin Buchanan, a superior naval officer.

[3] As the *Cumberland* sank, the crew continued to work their guns until the vessel plunged beneath the sea. Her flag was never struck, but floated above the water from the masthead after she had gone down.

crew were forced to surrender. At sunset the *Merrimac* returned to Norfolk, awaiting, the next day, an easy victory over the rest of the Union fleet. That night the *Monitor*[1] arrived in Hampton Roads and prepared to meet her giant adversary. Early in the morning the *Merrimac* moved toward a Union steam frigate. Suddenly the little *Monitor* darted out and hurled at the monster two 166-pound balls. Startled by the appearance

MERRIMAC AND MONITOR.

of this unexpected antagonist, the *Merrimac* poured in a broadside such as had destroyed the *Congress*, but the balls rattled harmlessly off the *Monitor's* turret and deck. Thus began the battle of the iron ships—the first of the kind in the world. Close against each other,

[1] This "Yankee cheese-box," as it was nicknamed at the time, was the invention of Captain Ericsson. It was a hull, with the deck a few inches above the water, and in the center a strong round tower made to revolve slowly by steam power, thus turning in any direction the two large guns it contained. The upper part of the hull, which was exposed to the enemy's fire, projected several feet beyond the lower part, and was made of thick white oak, covered with iron plating five inches thick on the sides and one inch on deck.

iron rasping on iron, they exchanged their heaviest shots. Five times the *Merrimac* tried to run down the *Monitor*, but her huge beak only grated over the iron deck, while the *Monitor* glided out unharmed. Despairing of doing injury to her doughty antagonist, the *Merrimac* now steamed back to Norfolk.[1]

The Effect of this contest can hardly be overestimated. Had the *Merrimac* triumphed, aided by other iron vessels then being prepared by the Confederacy, she might have destroyed the rest of the Union fleet in Hampton Roads, prevented the Peninsular campaign (see below), swept through the shipping at New York, sailed along the coast and broken up the blockade, opened the way for foreign supplies, made an egress for cotton, and perhaps secured the recognition of the Confederacy by European nations. On this battle hinged the fate of the war.

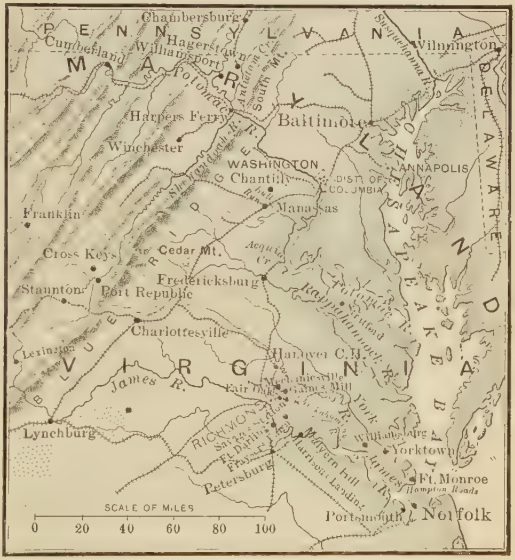
THE WAR IN THE EAST

The Peninsular Campaign.— Richmond was the objective point in the East. After long delays, it was decided to make the advance by way of the peninsula between the York and James rivers; and the Army of the Potomac, under McClellan, was carried in transports down the Chesapeake from Washington.[2] Landing at Fort Monroe about 90,000 strong (April 4 and later), they slowly marched toward Yorktown.

[1] As the *Merrimac* drew off, she hurled a last shot, which, striking the *Monitor's* pilot-house, broke a bar of iron nine by twelve inches, seriously injuring the eyes of the gallant commander, Lieutenant Worden, who was at that moment looking out through a narrow slit and directing the movements of his ship.

[2] Previous to this (March 10) McClellan made an advance toward Manassas, where the Confederates had remained intrenched since McDowell's defeat. The fortifications, which were evacuated on his approach, were found to be quite insignificant, and to be mounted partly with "Quaker guns," i.e. logs shaped and painted to imitate artillery.

Yorktown and Williamsburg.—At Yorktown General Magruder maintained so bold a front along a line thirteen miles in length that McClellan was brought to a stop. Heavy guns were ordered from Washington, and a siege was begun. The garrison, having delayed McClellan a month, withdrew just as he was ready to open fire.[1] When the Confederate movement was discovered, a vigorous pursuit was commenced. At Williamsburg a long fight took place with the Confederate rear guard, placed there by General Joseph E. Johnston to gain time for the baggage train (May 5). The town was evacuated at night, and McClellan gradually moved to within seven miles of Richmond.



WAR IN THE EAST, 1862.

Richmond Threatened.— There was a great panic in Richmond, and the Confederate Congress hastily adjourned, in expectation of an immediate attack. But a Confederate force at Hanover Court House now threatened McClel-

[1] On the evacuation of Yorktown,—the Confederate forces being concentrated for the defense of Richmond,—Norfolk was abandoned, the navy yard burned, and the *Merrimac*, the pride of the South, blown up. United States troops from Fort Monroe took possession of the city, and gunboats sailed up the James River almost to Richmond. At Fort Darling a plunging fire from the bluff forbade further advance.

lan's rear, and also his communications with General McDowell, who, with 30,000 men, was at Fredericksburg, preparing to join him. McClellan sent part of his army, under General Fitz John Porter, to capture Hanover Court House. By the time this was done, however, he learned that McDowell's army had been ordered away on other duty. This change in the Union plan was caused by

Jackson's Shenando'ah Campaign.— General Stonewall Jackson had been ordered to move down the Shenandoah valley and threaten Washington. The Union troops under General Banks fell back before his advance, and by tremendous exertion succeeded in escaping across the Potomac. Great was the consternation in Washington. The President took military possession of the railroads. The governors of the Northern States were called upon to send troops for the defense of the capital. Frémont at Franklin, Banks at Williamsport, and McDowell at Fredericksburg were ordered to capture Jackson. It was high time for this dashing leader to be alarmed. He rapidly retreated, destroying bridges as he passed. Frémont brought him to bay at Cross Keys (June 8), but was hurled off. Shields struck at him at Port Republic[1] the next day, but was driven back five miles, and Jackson then quietly left the Shenandoah valley. With 15,000 men, Jackson had absorbed the attention of three major generals and 60,000 men, prevented McDowell's junction with McClellan, alarmed Washington, and saved Richmond.

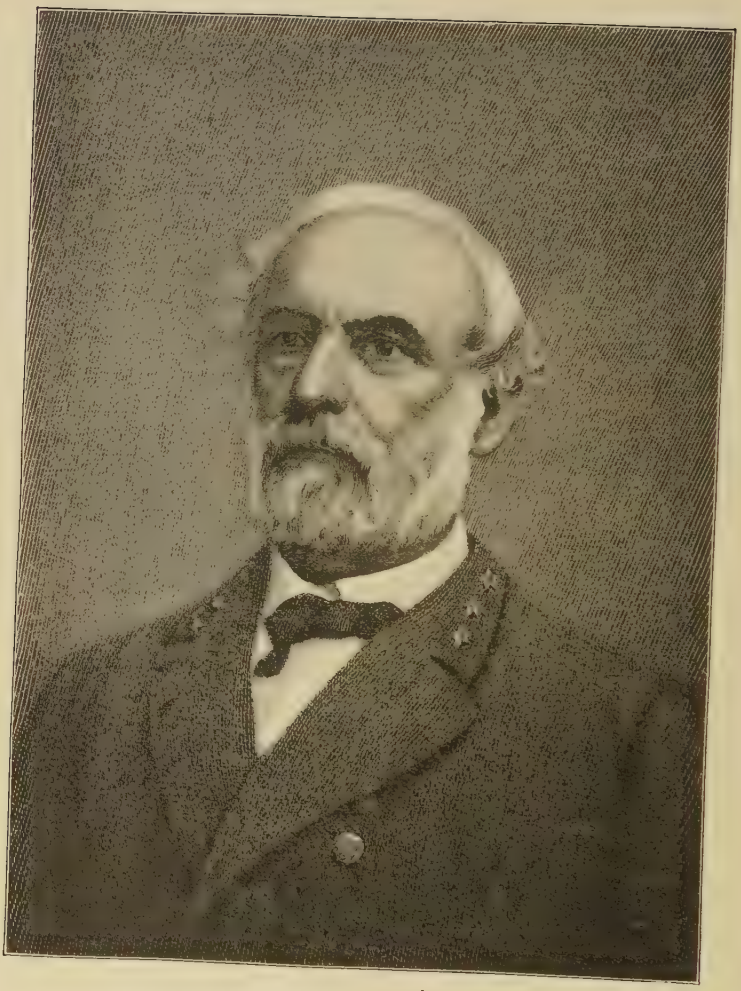
Battle of Fair Oaks (May 31, June 1).— Meanwhile

[1] When a small Federal force captured the bridge over the Shenandoah at Port Republic (June 8), Jackson and his staff were cut off from his army. It is said that "he rode toward the bridge, and, rising in his stirrups, called sternly to the Federal officer commanding the artillery placed to sweep it: 'Who ordered you to post that gun there, sir? Bring it over here!' The bewildered officer bowed, limbered up his piece, and prepared to move. Jackson and his staff seized the lucky moment and dashed across the bridge before the gun could be brought to bear upon them."

McClellan had pushed his left wing across the Chickahominy. But a terrible storm flooded the swamps and converted the small stream into a broad river. General Johnston seized the opportunity to fall with tremendous force upon the exposed wing; but General Sumner, throwing his men across the tottering bridges over the Chickahominy, checked the column which was trying to seize the bridges and thus separate the two portions of the army. General Johnston was severely wounded. The next day the Confederates renewed the attack, but were repulsed in great disorder.

The Union Army Checked.— General Lee,[1] who now took direct command of the Confederate army, was anxious to assume the offensive. General Stuart led off (June 12) with a bold cavalry raid, in which he seized and burned supplies along the railroad in McClellan's rear, made the entire circuit of the Union army, and returned to Richmond in safety. McClellan also meditated an advance, and Hooker's division pushed its pickets within sight of the Richmond steeples. But now Stonewall Jackson appeared near Hanover Court House and threatened the Union communications with York River. There was no longer any thought of moving on Richmond. McClellan

[1] Robert Edward Lee was born at Stratford, Va., 1807; died at Lexington, Va., 1870. His father was the celebrated Henry Lee, "Light-horse Harry" of Revolutionary fame. Robert early showed a love for military life, and during his West Point course was devoted to his studies. In the Mexican war he was Scott's chief engineer, and was thrice brevetted for his services. When Virginia seceded he threw in his fortunes with his native State, although Scott had intimated his intention of nominating him as his successor. Lee was immediately appointed major general of the Virginia forces, and was soon after designated to fortify Richmond. His wonderful success in the Seven-Days fight made "Uncle Robert," as he was familiarly called, the most trusted of the Confederate leaders. For three years he baffled every attempt to take Richmond, which fell only with the government of which it was the capital and the army and general that were its defense. General Lee was handsome in face and figure, a graceful rider, grave and silent in deportment — just the bearing to captivate a soldier; while his deep piety, truth, sincerity, and honesty won the hearts of all.



resolved to change his base of supply from the York River to the James, involving a dangerous flank movement to his left.

The Seven Days' Battles.— Before this flank movement began, Lee, massing his strength on his left, fell upon the Union right at MECHANICSVILLE (June 26), but was repulsed. While the Union army was marching from its old position toward the James River, Lee attacked it on successive days at GAINES MILL, SAVAGES STATION, and FRAYSERS FARM; but in each case the Federals held their ground until they were ready to march on. At MALVERN HILL they took position on an elevated plateau rising in the form of an amphitheater, on whose sloping sides were arranged tier upon tier of batteries, with gunboats protecting the left. Here Lee received so bloody a check (July 1) that he pressed the pursuit no farther. The Union troops retired undisturbed to Harrisons Landing.

GAINES MILL.

The Effect of this campaign was a triumph for the Confederates. The Union retreat had been conducted with skill, the troops had shown great bravery and steadiness, the repulse at Malvern Hill was decided, and Lee had lost fully 20,000 men; yet the siege of Richmond had been raised, 16,000 of McClellan's men killed, wounded, or captured, and immense stores taken or destroyed; and the Union army was now cooped up on the James River, under

the protection of the gunboats. The discouragement in the North was as great as after the battle of Bull Run. Lincoln called for a levy of 300,000 troops.

Campaign against Pope.—The forces near Washington were now united under the command of General Pope. McClellan was directed to transport his army to Acqui'a Creek, so that it might be united with General Pope's. Lee, relieved from all fear for Richmond, immediately massed his troops against Pope to crush him before the Army of the Potomac could arrive.[1] Pope being held in check by the main army in front, General Jackson was sent around Pope's right wing to flank him (August 26). General Pope, seeing an opportunity while Lee's army was thus divided to cut it up in detail, turned upon Jackson. But his plans failed, and instead of "bagging" Jackson's division, he was compelled, before all his reënforcements had arrived, to fight the entire Confederate army on the old battlefield of BULL RUN. Exhausted, cut off from supplies, and overwhelmed by numbers, the shattered remains of the Union forces were glad to take refuge within the fortifications of Washington.[2]

The Effect.—In this brief campaign the Union army lost heavily in men, munitions, and supplies. The capital had not been in such peril since the war began.

Invasion of Maryland.—Flushed with success, Lee now crossed the Potomac and entered Maryland,[3] hoping to

[1] In the meantime Jackson attacked Banks at CEDAR MOUNTAIN (August 9), and defeated him after a bloody battle, but, unable to maintain his position, fell back on Lee's advancing army. Pope, seeing the fearful odds against which he was to contend, took post behind the Rappahan'nock.

[2] During the pursuit by Lee's forces an engagement took place at CHANTIL'LY (September 1). It cost the Union army two able officers, Generals Stevens and Kearny. The latter especially was devotedly loved by his soldiers. On the battlefield, brandishing his sword in his only hand and taking the reins in his teeth, he had often led them in the most desperate and irresistible charges.

[3] This was September 5, the very day that Bragg entered Kentucky on his great raid.

secure volunteers there. McClellan, who had resumed command of all the troops near Washington, set out in pursuit. On the way he found a copy of Lee's order of march, and learned from this that Lee had divided his forces, sending part of them to take Harpers Ferry.[1] Overtaking the Confederate rear at SOUTH MOUNTAIN and forcing the passes, the Union army poured into the valley beyond.

Battle of Antietam (September 17).—Lee fell back west of Antietam (an te'tam) Creek, and sent off couriers to hasten the return of his troops at Harpers Ferry. Fortunately for him, McClellan delayed his attack a day, and in the meantime Jackson arrived. The Union army was over 80,000 strong, and the Confederate but half that number. The Union right, under Hooker, advanced impetuously, but was repulsed. The struggle was long and obstinate. The Union left, under Burnside, advanced too late to relieve the pressure on the right. Night ended this bloody fight. The morning found neither commander ready to assail his opponent. That night Lee retired unmolested across the Potomac. Six weeks after, the Union army also crossed into Virginia.

The Effect of this indecisive battle was that of a Union victory. The North was saved from invasion, and Washington from any danger of attack. Lincoln now issued a proclamation to the effect that on the following January 1 he would declare freedom to the slaves in all States and parts of States then in arms against the Union.[2]

[1] These troops, 25,000 strong, were under Jackson. That redoubtable leader quickly carried the heights which overlook Harpers Ferry, forced Colonel Miles, with 11,000 men, to surrender, and then hastened back to take part in the approaching contest on the Antietam.

[2] Lincoln prepared the original draft in the July preceding, when the Union forces were in the midst of reverses. Carpenter repeats President Lincoln's words thus: "I put the draft of the proclamation aside, waiting for a victory. Well, the next news we

Battle of Fredericksburg.— General dissatisfaction being expressed at the slowness with which McClellan pursued the retreating army, General Burnside was appointed his successor. Crossing the Rappahannock on pontoon bridges at Fredericksburg, he stormed the works in the rear of the town (December 13). The Confederates, intrenched behind a long stone wall[1] and on heights crowned with artillery, easily repulsed the repeated assaults of the Union troops. Night mercifully put an end to the fruitless sacrifice. The Federal army drew back into the city, and two nights after passed quietly across the bridges to their old camping ground.

General Review of the Second Year of the War.—The Confederates had gained the victories of Jackson in the Shenandoah valley; of Lee in the Peninsular campaign and against Pope; Bragg's great raid in Kentucky; and the battles of Fredericksburg and Chickasaw Bluff.

The Federals had taken Forts Henry, Donelson, Pulaski, Macon, Jackson, St. Philip, and Island No. 10; had opened

had was of Pope's disaster at Bull Run. Things looked darker than ever. Finally came the week of the battle of Antietam. I determined to wait no longer. The news came, I think, on Wednesday, that the advantage was on our side. I was then staying at the Soldiers' Home. Here I finished writing the second draft of the proclamation; came up on Saturday; called the Cabinet together to hear it; and it was published the following Monday. *I made a solemn vow before God, that if General Lee was driven back from Maryland I would crown the result by the declaration of freedom to the slaves.*"

[1] Sheltered behind this stone wall at the base of Maryes Heights, the Confederates poured a withering fire on their assailants. Six brigades of Federals, Hancock's and French's divisions, made the assault with heroic valor, winning much glory even in defeat. Under Hancock, the brigades of Zook, Meagher, and Caldwell achieved equal distinction with cruel losses. Of the charge of Meagher's Irish brigade, the London *Times* correspondent, an eyewitness, wrote: "Never at Fontenoy, at Albuera, or at Waterloo was more undoubted courage displayed by the sons of Erin than during those six frantic dashes which they directed against the almost impregnable position of their foe. That any mortal men could have carried the position, defended as it was, it seems idle to believe. But the bodies which lie in dense masses within forty yards of the muzzles of Colonel Walton's guns are the best evidence what manner of men they were who pressed on to death with the dauntlessness of a race which has gained glory on a thousand battlefields, and never more richly deserved it than at the foot of Maryes Heights, December 13, 1862."

the Mississippi to Vicksburg; occupied New Orleans, Roanoke Island, Newbern, Yorktown, Norfolk, and Memphis; gained the battles of Pea Ridge, Williamsburg, Fair Oaks, South Mountain, Antietam, Perryville, Iuka, Corinth, and Murfreesboro; and checked the career of the *Merrimac*. The marked successes were mainly in the West and along the coast; while in Virginia, as yet, defeats had followed victories so soon as to hide their memory.

The Sioux War.— In the midst of this civil strife the Sioux (soo) Indians became dissatisfied with the Indian traders, and over the nonpayment of money due them. Bands of warriors under Little Crow and other chiefs perpetrated horrible massacres in Minnesota, Iowa, and Dakota. Over 700 whites were slain and many thousands driven from their homes. Colonel Sibley routed the savages and took 500 prisoners. Thirty-nine were hanged on one scaffold at Mankato, Minn.

COLLATERAL READING

The Peninsular Campaign.—Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. vi. pp. 188–214.

1863

The Situation.— The plan of the war in 1863 was the same as in the preceding year, but included also the occupation of Tennessee. The Federal army was about 700,000 strong; the Confederate not more than half that number. The Emancipation Proclamation was issued at the opening of the year.

THE WAR IN THE WEST

The Second Expedition against Vicksburg.— Grant continued his great task of opening the Mississippi. After several weeks of fruitless effort against Vicksburg upon

the north, he marched down the west side of the river, while the gunboats, running the batteries,[1] passed below the city and ferried the army across. Hastening forward, he defeated part of General Pemberton's army at Port Gibson (May 1). Learning that General Joseph E. Johnston was coming to Pemberton's assistance, he rapidly pushed between them, and defeated Johnston at Jackson (May 14). Then, turning to the west, he drove Pemberton from his position at Champion Hills (May 16) and at Big Black River (May 17), and in twenty days after crossing the Mississippi shut up Pemberton's army within the works at Vicksburg. Two desperate assaults upon these having failed, the Union troops threw up intrenchments and began a siege.[2] The garrison, worn out by forty-seven days of toil in the trenches, surrendered on the 4th of July.

WAR IN THE WEST, 1863.

The Effect.— This campaign cost the Confederates the

[1] The running of the batteries with transports was considered so hazardous that the officers would not order their crews to take the risk, but called for volunteers. So many privates offered that they were compelled to draw lots. The gantlet of batteries extended fourteen miles. The first gunboat crept silently down in the shadow of the trees which lined the bank. The Confederates at Vicksburg, discovering the movement, kindled bonfires, which lighted up the whole scene and made the other vessels a fair target for their gunners.

[2] Mines and countermines were now dug. Not one of the garrison could show his head above the works without being picked off by the watchful riflemen. A hat held above a porthole in two minutes was pierced with fifteen balls. Shells reached all parts of the city, and the inhabitants burrowed in caves to escape the iron storm.

cities of Vicksburg and Jackson, 37,000 prisoners, 10,000 killed and wounded, and immense stores.

Four days after the fall of Vicksburg, PORT HUDSON, which had been besieged by General Banks for many weeks, surrendered. The Mississippi was now open to the Gulf, and the Confederacy was cut in twain.[1] One great object of the North was accomplished.

THE WAR IN TENNESSEE AND GEORGIA

Rosecrans, after the battle of Murfreesboro, made no forward movement until June.[2] With 60,000 men he then marched against Bragg, and in two brilliant campaigns maneuvered him out of Tullahoma and (Sept. 8) out of Chattanooga. Rosecrans pushed on after Bragg, who was in full retreat. Bragg, however, having received powerful reënforcements, turned upon his pursuers so suddenly that they narrowly escaped being cut up in detail while scattered over a distance of forty miles. The Union forces rapidly concentrated, and the two armies met on the Chickamauga.

VICINITY OF CHATTANOOGA.

[1] Thereafter the operations west of the river were of minor importance. In August, Quantrell, a noted guerrilla, entered Lawrence, Kan., with 300 men, plundered the bank, burned houses, murdered 140 persons, and escaped before a sufficient force could be gathered to oppose him. This created greater excitement than many battles.

[2] One objection which Rosecrans opposed to a forward movement was his inferiority in cavalry. This was removed in July, when General John H. Morgan, with about 2500 Confederate cavalry, crossed the Ohio River into Indiana, swept around Cincinnati, and struck the river again opposite West Virginia. During his entire raid he was harassed by militia. He was now overtaken by his pursuers, while gunboats in the river prevented his crossing. Nearly the entire force was captured. Morgan

Battle of Chickamauga (September 19, 20).—The first day's fight was inconclusive. About noon of the second day, through a mistaken order, a gap was left in the Federal line, already weakened from the movement of troops to help the left wing, then hard pressed. Longstreet, who was moving forward to attack the Federal right with eight brigades, swept through the gap and drove most of the Federal right and center from the field. The rushing crowd of fugitives bore Rosecrans himself away. In this crisis of the battle all depended on the left, under Thomas. If that yielded, the army would be utterly routed. All through the long afternoon the entire Confederate army surged against it. But Thomas held fast.[1] At night he deliberately withdrew to Rossville, and the next night to Chattanooga. The Union army, however, defeated in the field, was now shut up in its intrenchments. Bragg held the hills near the city, and cut off its principal communications. The garrison was threatened with starvation.

Battle of Chattanooga (November 24, 25).—Grant, having been appointed to command the Mississippi Division, hurried to Chattanooga.[2] Affairs soon wore a different look. Hooker, who had come with two corps from the Army of the Potomac,[3] helped to reëstablish communications. Sherman's army, on its way from Vicksburg, hastened by forced marches the last 200 miles of its journey. Thomas made a dash and seized Orchard Knob (November 23).

escaped, but was finally taken and confined in the penitentiary at Columbus. Four months afterward he broke jail and reached the Southern lines in safety.

[1] Thomas was thenceforth styled the "Rock of Chickamauga." He was in command of men as brave as himself.

[2] Rosecrans was now relieved, and Thomas put in his place. Grant, afraid that Thomas might surrender before he could arrive, telegraphed him to hold fast. The characteristic reply was: "We will hold the town till we starve."

[3] Over 20,000 strong, they were carried by rail from the Rapidan in Virginia to Stevenson in Alabama, 1192 miles, in seven days. The Confederates did not know of the movement until several days after it had commenced.

The following day Hooker, advancing from the west, easily fought his way around the north end of Lookout Mountain,[1] whereupon the Confederates abandoned their impregnable position on the summit.[2] The next day Hooker advanced on the south of Missionary Ridge. Sherman had been heavily pounding away on the northern flank. Grant, from his position on Orchard Knob,

FIGHTING FOR THE CREST OF MISSIONARY RIDGE.

thinking that the Confederate line in front was being weakened to repel these attacks on the flanks, felt that the critical moment had come, and launched Thomas's

[1] Through the mist that enveloped the mountain, the watchers below caught only glimpses of this far-famed "battle above the clouds."

[2] November 24, the Confederate left rested on Lookout Mountain, there 2400 feet high; the right, along Missionary Ridge—so called because, many years ago, Catholic missionaries had Indian schools upon it; and the center, in the valley between. November 25, their army simply occupied Missionary Ridge, in front of Grant at Orchard Knob.

troops on its center, the orders being to take the rifle pits at the foot of Missionary Ridge. These were carried, but were found to be untenable on account of the batteries on the crest, so the men swept on up the ascent without waiting for further orders. Up they went, over rocks and chasms, all lines broken, the flags far ahead, each surrounded by a group of the bravest. Heedless of the tempest hurled upon them, they surmounted the crest, captured the guns, and turned them on the retreating foe. That night the Union camp fires, glistening along the heights about Chattanooga, proclaimed the success of this the most brilliant of Grant's achievements and the most picturesque of the battles of the war.

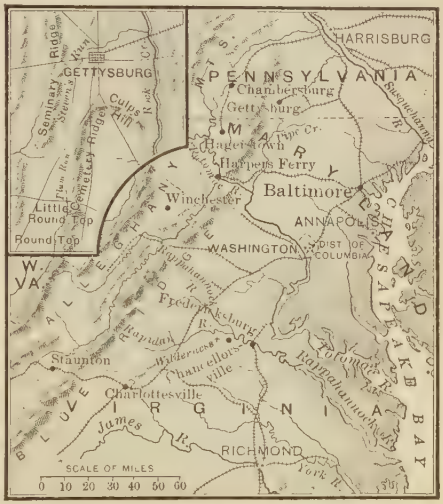
The secure possession of Chattanooga by the Union forces gave control of East Tennessee[1] and opened the way to the heart of the Confederacy.

THE WAR IN THE EAST

Battle of Chancellorsville (May 2, 3).—Burnside, after the defeat at Fredericksburg, was succeeded by General Hooker, early in the year 1863. A temporary reduction of Lee's force, leaving Lee only 60,000 to oppose to the Potomac Army of over 100,000, offered a favorable opportunity for an attack. Accordingly, while Sedgwick was left to attack Fredericksburg, the main body of Hooker's army crossed the Rappahannock some miles above, and

[1] Burnside, ex-commander of the Army of the Potomac, had been sent into East Tennessee, where he captured KNOXVILLE (September 2). While Bragg was besieging Chattanooga, the Confederate President, Davis, visited him, and, thinking Chattanooga was sure to be captured, sent Longstreet with his corps to move against Burnside. Longstreet shut up Burnside's force in the works at Knoxville, and made a desperate assault (November 29), which was as heroically repulsed. Meanwhile Grant, immediately after his splendid triumph at Chattanooga, ordered Sherman's troops over terrible roads 100 miles to Burnside's relief. On their approach, Longstreet withdrew (December 4) and retreated toward Virginia.

took position in the Wilderness, near Chancellorsville. Lee, relying on the dense woods to conceal his movements, risked the perilous plan of dividing his army in the presence of a superior enemy. While he remained in front, Jackson, by a detour of fifteen miles, got to the rear with 20,000 men, and, suddenly bursting out of the dense woods, routed the Union right. That night Hooker took a new position; but, by constant attacks through the next day, Lee gradually forced the Union line from the field of battle. Meanwhile Sedgwick had crossed the Rappahannock, taken Fredericksburg, and made a diversion in Lee's rear. But after severe fighting he was compelled to recross the river. Hooker also decided to recross, and did so unmolested. The Army of the Potomac was soon back on its old camping ground opposite Fredericksburg.[1]



WAR IN THE EAST, 1863.

Lee's Second Invasion of the North.—Lee, encouraged by his success, now determined to carry the war into Maryland and Pennsylvania. With the finest army the South had ever sent forth, the flower of her troops,

[1] In this battle the South was called to mourn the death of Stonewall Jackson, whose magic name was worth to its cause more than an army. In the evening after his successful onslaught upon the flank of the Union line, while riding back to camp from a reconnoissance at the front, he was fired upon and mortally wounded by his own men, who mistook his escort for Federal cavalry.

carefully equipped and confident of success,[1] he rapidly moved into the Shenandoah valley, crossed the Potomac, and advanced into Pennsylvania. The Union army followed a little farther east.

Battle of Gettysburg (July 1–3).— *First Day.*— The Confederate advance unexpectedly met the Union cavalry near Gettysburg.[2] Reënforcements came up on both sides; but the Federal troops were finally forced back, and, becoming entangled in the streets of the village, lost many prisoners. All that night the troops kept arriving and taking their positions by moonlight, to be ready for the contest which they saw was now close at hand.[3]

Second Day.— In the afternoon Longstreet led the first grand charge against the Union left, in order to secure

[1] The Union disasters which had happened since the beginning of the year encouraged Southern hope that Lee might even dictate terms of peace in Philadelphia or New York. Galveston, Tex., which had been seized by the Federals, had been retaken by General Magruder, whereby not only valuable stores had been acquired, but a seaport had been opened and the Union cause in Texas depressed. The naval attack on Charleston had proved a failure (p. 288). An attempt to capture Fort McAllister, near Savannah, had met with no success. Rosecrans had made no progress against Bragg. Banks had not then taken Port Hudson. Vicksburg still kept Grant at bay. The Army of the Potomac had been checked at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville, and at one time 200 soldiers a day were deserting its ranks. The term of service of over forty regiments had expired, and the strength of the army was now only 80,000. The cost of the war was enormous, and a strong peace party had arisen in the North. The draft was very unpopular. Indeed, just after Lee's invasion a riot broke out in New York to resist the draft. Houses were burned, negroes were pursued in the streets, and, when captured, were beaten and even hanged; for three days the city was a scene of outrage and violence.

[2] "Neither general had planned to have the fight at this place; Lee had intended not to fight at all, except a defensive battle, and Meade proposed to make the contest at Pipe Creek, about fifteen miles southeast from Gettysburg. The movement of cavalry which brought on this great battle was only a screen to conceal the Union army marching toward Meade's desired battlefield."— DRAPER.

[3] The Union line was upon a fishhook-shaped ridge about six miles long, with Culps Hill at the barb, Cemetery Ridge along the side, and Little Round Top and Round Top, two eminences, at the eye. The Confederate line was on Seminary Ridge, at a distance of about a mile and a half. The Union troops lay behind rock ledges and stone walls, while the Confederates were largely hidden in the woods. In the valley between were fields of grain and pastures where cattle were feeding, all unconscious of the gathering storm.

Little Round Top. General Sickles, by mistake, had here taken a position in front of Meade's intended line of battle. The Confederates, far outflanking, swung around him; but, as they reached the top of the hill, they met a brigade which Warren had sent just in time to defeat this attempt. Sickles was, however, driven back to Cemetery Ridge, where he stood firm. Ewell, in an attack on the Federal right, succeeded in getting a position on Culps Hill.[1]

CONFEDERATE CHARGE, THIRD DAY AT GETTYSBURG.

Third Day.— At 1 P.M. Lee suddenly opened on Cemetery Ridge with one hundred and fifty guns. For two hours the air was alive with shells.[2] Then the cannonade lulled, and out of the woods swept the Confederate battle line, over a mile long, and preceded by a cloud of skir-

[1] Lee, encouraged by these successes, resolved to continue the fight. The Confederate victories, however, were only apparent. Sickles had been forced into a better position than at first, and the one which Meade had intended he should occupy; while Ewell was driven out of the Union works early the next morning.

[2] It is customary in battle to demoralize the enemy, before a grand infantry charge, by concentrating upon the desired point a tremendous artillery fire.

mishers. A thrill of admiration ran along the Union ranks as, silently and with disciplined steadiness, that magnificent line of over 12,000 men moved up the slope of Cemetery Ridge. A hundred guns tore great gaps in their front. Infantry volleys smote their ranks. The line was broken, yet they pushed forward. They planted their battle flags on the breastworks. They bayoneted the cannoneers at their guns. But no human endurance could stand the converging fire of the Federals. Whole companies rushed as prisoners into the Union lines, while the rest sullenly withdrew.[1] On the night of July 4, Lee retreated.

The Federal loss in the three days' fight was 23,000; the Confederate loss, over 20,000. Meade slowly followed Lee, who recrossed the Potomac and took position back of the Rapidan.

The Effect.— This battle put an end to Lee's efforts to invade the North. It was the turning point of the war. From that time the Confederacy waned. Lee's veterans who went down in the awful charges of Gettysburg could never be replaced.

THE WAR ON THE SEA AND ON THE COAST

Attack on Fort Sumter (April 7).— Such was the confidence felt in the ability of the ironclads to resist cannon balls that Admiral Dupont attacked Fort Sumter, at the entrance to Charleston Harbor, with eight monitors. After bombarding it an hour, the fleet withdrew, badly damaged by the fire from the Confederate batteries.[2] General Gill-

[1] At the very moment when the last charge was being repulsed, Pemberton was negotiating for the surrender of Vicksburg to Grant.

[2] The *Keokuk* sank the next day, and four other vessels were seriously injured. The officers declared that the strokes of the shots against the iron sides of their ships were as rapid as the ticks of a watch.

more, landing on Morris Island, by regular siege approaches and a terrible bombardment forced the evacuation of Fort Wagner[1] and reduced Fort Sumter to a shapeless mass of rubbish. Two nights later a party of sailors from the Union fleet essayed to capture it, but its garrison, upstarting from the ruins, drove them back with heavy loss.

VICINITY OF CHARLESTON HARBOR.

General Review of the Third Year of the War.— The Confederates had gained the great battles of Chickamauga and Chancellorsville, and successfully resisted every attack on Charleston.

The Federals had gained the important battles before Vicksburg, and those at Chattanooga and Gettysburg. They had captured the garrisons of Vicksburg and Port Hudson. The Mississippi was patrolled by Federal gunboats, and the Confederate army was cut off from its Western supplies. Arkansas, east Tennessee, and large portions of Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas had been won for the Union.

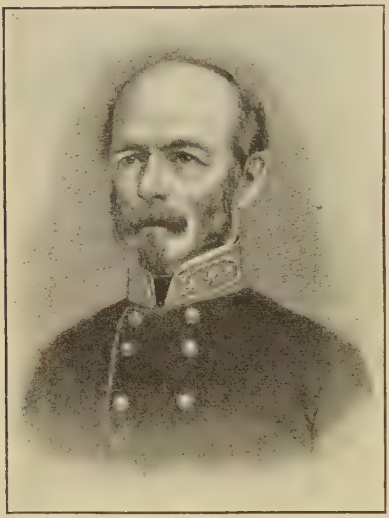
COLLATERAL READINGS

Vicksburg.— Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. vi. pp. 375–398.
The Soldier of the Civil War.— Schouler, vol. vi. pp. 290–316.

[1] Two unsuccessful assaults were made on this fort. In one, the first colored regiment organized in the free States took a prominent part, fighting with unflinching gallantry. No measure of the war was more bitterly opposed than the project of arming the negroes. It was denounced in the North, and the Confederate Congress passed a law which threatened with death any white officer captured while in command of negro troops, leaving the men to be dealt with according to the laws of the State

1864

The Situation.—In March General Grant was made lieutenant general in command of all the forces of the United States.[1] Heretofore the different armies had acted under generals independent of each other. They were now to move in concert under one general, and thus prevent the Confederate forces from aiding each other. The strength of the South lay in the armies of Lee in Virginia and Joseph E. Johnston[2] in Georgia. Grant was to attack Lee, Sher-



JOSEPH EGGLESTON JOHNSTON.

in which they were taken. Yet so willing were the negroes to enlist, and so faithful did they prove themselves in service, that in December, 1863, over 50,000 had been enrolled, and before the close of the war that number was quadrupled.

[1] Before Grant took command, a joint naval and land expedition, under the command of General Banks, was sent up the Red River in the hope of destroying the Confederate authority in that region and in Texas. At SABINE CROSSROADS, La. (April 8, 1864), the Confederate forces under General Dick Taylor attacked the advance while the line of march was greatly extended, and a miniature Bull Run retreat ensued. The Union troops, however, rallied at PLEASANT HILL, and the next day, reënforcements coming up from the rear, they were able to repulse the Confederates. The army thereupon returned to New Orleans, and Banks was relieved of the command. He had lost 5000 men, 18 guns, and large supplies. Besides this, the men employed in the expedition were much needed for other work. Part of them had been drawn from northern Mississippi and west Tennessee, leaving these regions exposed to Confederate attack. Forrest captured a number of Union troops in Tennessee, and advanced into Kentucky. Later he fell upon FORT PILLOW (April 12), which refused to surrender. As his men rushed into the fort, they raised the cry "No quarter!" "The Confederate officers," says Pollard, "lost control of their men, who were maddened by the sight of negro troops opposing them," and an indiscriminate slaughter followed.

[2] Johnston's army consisted chiefly of the men formerly under Bragg, who was superseded soon after the battle of Chattanooga. Johnston was one of the ablest of

man[1] was to attack Johnston, and both were to keep steadily at work. Each began his advance early in May.

THE WAR IN TENNESSEE AND GEORGIA

Advance upon Atlanta.— Sherman, with 100,000 men, moved upon Johnston, who, with nearly 50,000, was stationed at Dalton, Ga. The Confederate commander, foreseeing this advance, had selected a series of almost impregnable positions, one behind another, all the way to Atlanta. For 100 miles there was continued maneuvering and skirmishing among mountains and woods. Sherman would drive Johnston into a stronghold, and then with consummate skill outflank him, when Johnston with equal skill would retreat to a new post and make ready to meet his opponent again.[2] At Resaca,

WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN.

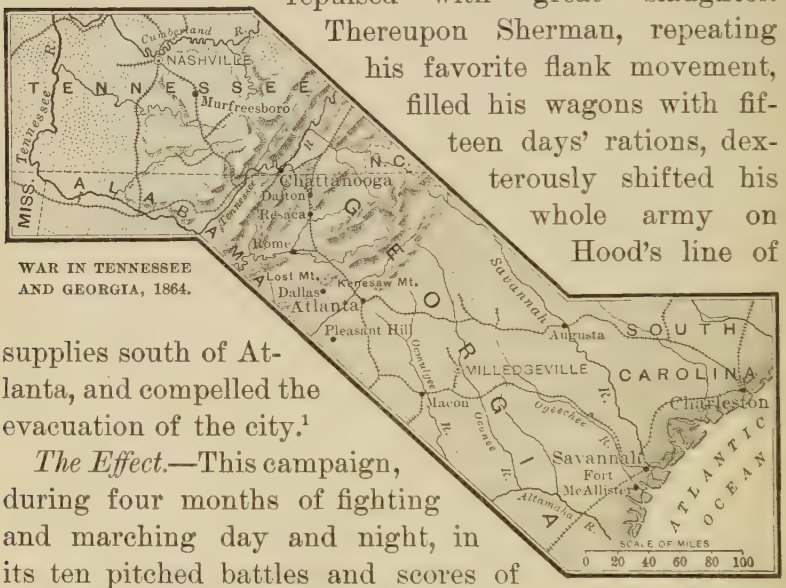
the Confederate generals, as had been shown in the battles of Bull Run and Fair Oaks. He was born in Virginia, 1807; died 1891. After graduating from the West Point Military Academy, he served in Indian wars and the war with Mexico, and rose to the rank of quartermaster general of the United States army. He was wounded in battle ten times.

[1] William Tecumseh Sherman was born in Ohio, 1820; died 1891. He was a West Point graduate, but before the outbreak of the war he had retired to civil life. He was commissioned colonel in May, 1861, and commanded a brigade at Bull Run. He was then transferred to the West, and fought many battles under Grant. As a general he was conspicuous for good judgment, dash, and energy.

[2] When either party stopped for a day or two, it fortified its front with an abattis of felled trees and a ditch with a head-log placed on the embankment. The head-log rested on small cross-sticks, thus leaving a space of four or five inches between the log and the earth, through which the guns could be pointed.

DALLAS, and LOST and KENESAW MOUNTAINS, bloody battles were fought. Finally Johnston retired to the intrenchments of Atlanta (July 10).

Capture of Atlanta.—Davis, dissatisfied with this Fabian policy, now put Hood in command. He attacked the Union army three times with tremendous energy, but was repulsed with great slaughter. Thereupon Sherman, repeating his favorite flank movement, filled his wagons with fifteen days' rations, dexterously shifted his whole army on Hood's line of supplies south of Atlanta, and compelled the evacuation of the city.[1]



WAR IN TENNESSEE AND GEORGIA, 1864.

The Effect.—This campaign, during four months of fighting and marching day and night, in its ten pitched battles and scores of lesser engagements, cost the Union army 30,000 men, and the Confederate 35,000. The loss of Atlanta was a severe blow to the South.[2]

Hood's Invasion of Tennessee.—Hood, with his army,

[1] During this campaign Sherman's supplies were brought up by a single line of railroad from Nashville, a distance of 300 miles, and exposed throughout to the attacks of the enemy. Yet so carefully was it garrisoned, and so rapidly were bridges built and breaks repaired, that the damages were often mended before the news of the accident reached camp. Sherman said that the whistle of the locomotive was frequently heard on the camp ground before the echoes of the skirmish fire had died away.

[2] Georgia was the workshop, storehouse, granary, and arsenal of the Confederacy. In Atlanta and the neighboring towns were manufactories, foundries, and mills, where clothing, wagons, harnesses, powder, balls, and cannon were furnished to all its armies. The Southern supply of these equipments was henceforth greatly reduced.

doubled around to the railroad in Sherman's rear in northern Georgia, and the cavalry under Forrest raided Sherman's communications near Chattanooga and Nashville. Sherman first drove Hood away from the railroad, and sent Thomas, with an inferior force, to defend Tennessee. Then, leaving Hood behind him, Sherman returned to Atlanta and prepared his army for its celebrated "March to the Sea."

Battle of Nashville (December 15, 16).— Hood crossed the Tennessee, and General Thomas retired within the fortifications at Nashville. For two weeks little was done.[1] When Thomas was fully ready, he suddenly sallied out against Hood, and in a terrible two days' battle drove the Confederate forces out of their intrenchments into headlong flight. The Union cavalry thundered upon their heels with remorseless energy. The infantry followed close behind. The bulk of Hood's army, except the rear guard, which fought bravely to the last, was reduced to a rabble of demoralized fugitives.

The Effect.— For the first time in the war, an army was destroyed. The object which Sherman hoped to attain when he moved on Atlanta was accomplished by Thomas, 300 miles away. Sherman could now go where he pleased with little danger of meeting a powerful foe. The war in the West, so far as any great movements were concerned, was finished.

Sherman's March to the Sea.— Breaking loose from his communications with Nashville, and burning the city of Atlanta, Sherman started (November 16) with 60,000 men for the Atlantic coast. The army moved in four

[1] Great disappointment was felt in the North over the retreat to Nashville, and still more at Thomas's delay in that city. Grant ordered him to move, and had actually started to take charge of his troops in person, when he learned of the splendid victory his slow but sure general had achieved.

columns, with a cloud of cavalry under Kilpatrick in front. The Georgia Central and Augusta railroads were destroyed, and the troops foraged on the country as they passed. In five weeks they marched 300 miles, reached the sea, stormed Fort McAllister, and occupied Savannah.[1]

The Effect of this march can hardly be overestimated. A fertile region 60 miles wide and 300 long was desolated;

SHERMAN'S MARCH.

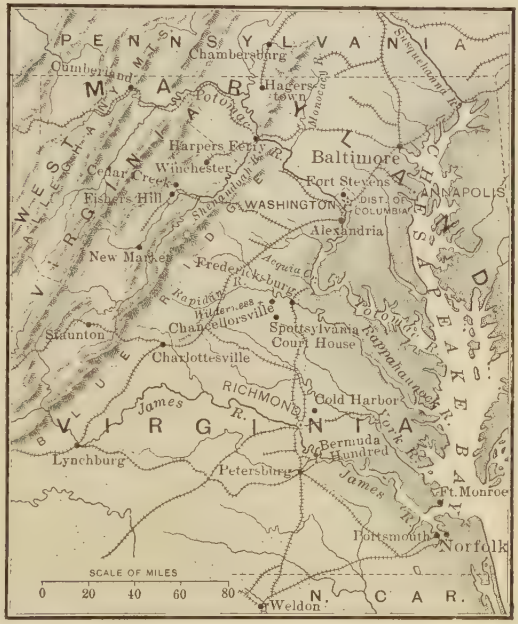
300 miles of railroad were destroyed; the eastern portion of the already sundered Confederacy was cut in twain; immense supplies of provisions were captured, and the hardships of war were brought home to many who had hitherto been exempt from its actual contact.

THE WAR IN VIRGINIA

Battle of the Wilderness (May 5, 6). — The Army of the Potomac crossed the Rapidan (May 4), and plunged into

[1] Sherman sent the news of its capture, with 25,000 bales of cotton and 150 cannon, to President Lincoln, as a Christmas present to the nation.

the Wilderness, not far from Chancellorsville.[1] While the columns were toiling along the narrow roads, they suddenly found and attacked the Confederate army. The dense forest forbade all strategy. In those gloomy shades, dense with smoke, this strangest of battles, which no eye could follow, marked only by the shouts and volleys, now advancing, now receding, as either side gained or lost, surged to and fro. The third day, both armies remained in their intrenchments. Neither side had conquered. It was generally supposed that the Federals would recross the Rapidan. Grant, however, quietly gathered up the army and pushed it by the Confederate right flank toward Spottsylvania Court House.



WAR IN VIRGINIA, 1864.

Battle of Spottsylvania (May 8–12).—Lee detected the movement, and hurried troops to hold the road, barring Grant's progress. Five days of continuous maneuvering[2]

[1] Meade remained at the head of this Army of the Potomac, but over him was Grant, who was generally with it also, and directed all important movements.

[2] During this time the sharpshooters on both sides, hidden in the trees, were busy picking off officers. On the 9th, General Sedgwick, while superintending the placing of a battery in the front, was struck by a bullet and killed.

and fighting[1] having given no advantage, Grant decided to try the favorite movement of the year, and turn Lee's right flank again.[2]

Battle of Cold Harbor (June 3). — Lee, however, moved on inner and shorter lines, and after some maneuvering slipped into the intrenchments of Cold Harbor. At daybreak the Union troops made an assault, only to be beaten back with terrible slaughter. Lee's army, sheltered behind its works, suffered little.[3]

Attack on Petersburg. — Grant now rapidly pushed his army over the James, below Richmond, and fell upon Petersburg; but here again Lee was ahead, and the works could not be forced. Grant, therefore, threw up intrenchments and sat down in front of the Confederate lines. The campaign now resolved itself into a siege of Richmond, with Petersburg as its advanced post.

The Effect. — The campaign had cost the Union 54,000

[1] On the morning of the 12th, Hancock's corps, hidden by a dense fog, charged upon the Confederate line, broke the abattis, surrounded a division, and took nearly 4000 prisoners, including two generals. So complete was the surprise that the officers were captured at breakfast. Lee, however, rallied, and the fighting was so fierce to regain this lost position that a "tree eighteen inches in diameter was cut in two by the bullets which struck it. Ten thousand men fell on each side."

[2] It was during this fearful battle that Grant sent his famous dispatch: "I purpose to fight it out on this line, if it takes all summer."

[3] Grant had arranged for three coöperative movements to divide the strength of the Confederate army: (1) General Sigel, with 7000 men, was to advance up the Shenandoah valley; but he was routed at NEW MARKET (May 15). General Hunter, who superseded him, defeated the Confederates at PIEDMONT (June 5), but pushing on to Lynchburg with about 20,000 men, he found it too strong, and prudently retired into West Virginia. (2) On the night that the Army of the Potomac crossed the Rapidan, General Butler, with 30,000 men, ascended the James River to operate against Richmond. But after some fighting he was forced back to the peninsula of Bermuda Hundred, whereupon Beauregard threw intrenchments across the narrow strip connecting it with the mainland. As Grant tersely said, the Union force was then shut off from any further advance "as completely . . . as if it had been in a bottle strongly corked." (3) General Sheridan, while the army was at Spottsylvania, passed in the rear of the Confederate position, destroyed miles of railroad, recaptured 400 prisoners, and defeated a cavalry force with the loss of its leader, General J. E. B. Stuart, the best cavalry officer in the South.

men,[1] and the Confederacy also many thousand. The weakened capabilities of the South were now fairly pitted against the almost exhaustless resources of the North. Grant's plan was to keep constantly hammering Lee's army, knowing that it was the chief hope of the Confederacy.

The Siege of Richmond continued until the spring campaign of 1865. It was marked by two important events:

1. *Mine Explosion* (July 30).— From a hidden ravine in front of Petersburg, a mine had been dug underneath a

THE PETERSBURG CRATER.

strong Confederate fort. Just at dawn the powder blast was fired. Several cannon, the garrison of 300 men, and huge masses of earth were thrown high in air. The Federal guns opened fire at once along the entire line.

[1] The above statement of the enormous Federal losses of this campaign is based upon the official records of the killed, wounded, and missing. There are no complete records of the Confederate loss; certain Southern writers put it as low as 19,000, but other writers give between 25,000 and 50,000.

An assaulting column rushed forward, but stopped in the crater produced by the explosion. The Confederates poured shot and shell from every side upon the struggling mass of men huddled within the demolished fort. The Federals lost about 4000 men in this ill-starred affair.

2. *Attack upon the Weldon Railroad* (August 18).— By threatening Richmond upon the north, Grant induced Lee to move troops to that city from Petersburg. The opportunity was at once seized, and the railroad leading to Weldon, N. C., was captured. Lee, aware of the great importance of this means of communication with the South, for several days made desperate but vain attempts for its recovery.

Early's Raid.— Hunter's retreat (p. 296) having laid open the Shenandoah valley, Lee took advantage of it to threaten Washington, hoping thus to draw off Grant from the siege of Richmond. General Early, with 20,000 men, accordingly hurried along this oft-traveled route. Defeating General Wallace at Monoc'acy River, he appeared before Fort Stevens, one of the defenses of Washington (July 11). Had he rushed by forced marches, he might have captured the city; but he stopped a day. Federal reënforcements having now arrived, he retreated, and, laden with booty, recrossed the Potomac.[1]

Sheridan's Campaign.— Sheridan was now put in command of all the troops in this region. He defeated Early at Winchester and Fishers Hill, and in a week destroyed half his army, and sent the rest "whirling up the valley."[2] Early was quickly reënforced, and, returning during Sheri-

[1] Later, he sent a party of cavalry into Pennsylvania. They entered Chambersburg, and, on failing to obtain a ransom of $500,000, set fire to the village, and escaped safely back into the Shenandoah valley.

[2] In order to prevent any further raids upon Washington from this direction, Sheridan devastated the valley so thoroughly that it was said: "If a crow wants to fly down the Shenandoah, he must carry his provisions with him."

dan's absence, surprised his army at CEDAR CREEK (October 19), and drove it in confusion. Sheridan arrived at this critical moment,[1] reformed his ranks, ordered an advance, and, attacking the Confederates, now busy plundering the captured camp, routed them with great slaughter.

The Effect.— This campaign of only a month was one of the most brilliant of the war. Sheridan lost 17,000 men, but he virtually destroyed Early's army, and there was no further attempt to threaten Washington.

THE WAR ON THE SEA AND ON THE COAST

The Blockade was now so effectual that the prices of all imported goods in the Confederate States were fabulous.[2] On account of the enormous profits of a successful voyage, foreign merchants were constantly seeking to run the gantlet. Their swift steamers, long, narrow, low, of a mud color, and making no smoke, occasionally escaped the vigilance of the Federal squadron. During the war, it is

[1] Early's attack was made under cover of a dense fog and the darkness of the early morning. General Wright, the Union commander, though wounded, remained on the field, and managed to get his troops into a new position about seven miles in the rear. Sheridan heard the cannonading while riding from Winchester, nearly twenty miles from Cedar Creek. Knowing the importance of his presence, he put spurs to his coal-black steed, and never drew rein for almost twelve miles, when, his horse covered with foam, he dashed to the new front. As he passed the fugitives along the road, he shouted: "Turn, boys, turn! We're going back." Under the magnetism of his presence, the men followed him back to the fight and victory.

[2] Flour brought, in Confederate currency, $40 a barrel; calico, $30 a yard; coffee, $50 a pound. Dried sage, raspberry, and other leaves were substituted for the costly tea. Woolen clothing was scarce, and the army depended largely on captures of the ample Federal stores. Pins were so scarce that they were eagerly picked up in the streets. Paper was so expensive that matches could no longer be put in boxes. Sugar, butter, and white bread became luxuries even for the wealthy. Salt, being a necessity, was economized to the last degree, old pork and fish barrels being soaked and the water evaporated so that not a grain of salt might be wasted. Women wore garments that were made of cloth carded, spun, woven, and dyed by their own hands. Large thorns were fitted with wax heads and made to serve as hairpins. Shoes were manufactured with wooden soles, to which the uppers were attached by means of small tacks.

said, over fifteen hundred blockade runners were taken or destroyed.

Confederate Cruisers had now practically driven the American commerce from the ocean. They were not privateers, like those named on page 259, for they were commissioned as regular war ships of the Confederate government. They sailed to and fro upon the track of American ships, recklessly plundering and burning, or else bonding them for heavy sums.

The *Alabama* was the most noted of these steamers. Against the urgent remonstrances of the United States minister at the British court, she was allowed to sail from England, where she was built, although her mission was well known. An English captain took her to the Azores, where English vessels brought her arms, ammunition, and the Confederate Captain Semmes with additional men.[1] Putting out to sea, he read his commission and announced his purpose. After capturing over sixty vessels, he sailed to Cherbourg, France. While there he sent a challenge to Captain Winslow of the Federal ship of war *Kear'sarge*. This was accepted, and a battle took place off the harbor (June, 1864). The two ships moved round in a circular track, pouring broadsides into each

THE ALABAMA.

[1] Of the other important Confederate cruisers, three (the *Shenandoah*, *Florida*, and *Georgia*) were British built, and were equipped in much the same way as the *Alabama*, while two (the *Sumter* and *Tallahassee*) came from Confederate ports. Several other war ships were built or equipped for the Confederates in British and French ports, but were not allowed to sail.

other. After the seventh rotation, the Confederate vessel surrendered and soon after sank.[1]

The Expedition against Mobile Bay (August 5) was under the command of Admiral Farragut. That he might oversee the battle more distinctly, he took a position in the rigging of his flagship, the *Hartford*. The vessels, lashed together in pairs for mutual assistance, in an hour fought their way past the Confederate forts and engaged

FARRAGUT IN MOBILE BAY.

the ironclad fleet beyond. After a desperate resistance, the great iron ram *Tennessee* was taken, and the other vessels were captured or put to flight. The forts were soon after reduced, and the harbor was thenceforth closed to blockade runners.[2]

[1] Captain Winslow rescued a part of the sinking crew, and others were picked up, at his request, by the *Deerhound*, an English yacht; but this vessel steamed off to the British coast with those she had saved, among whom was Captain Semmes.

[2] The city of Mobile was not captured until the next year (April, 1865). On April 12 the Union troops, under General Canby, entered the city, ignorant that Lee had surrendered three days before and that the Confederacy was dead.

The Expedition against Fort Fisher, which defended the harbor of Wilmington, N. C., was made by a large fleet under Commodore Porter, together with a detachment of the army. The first attempt on the fort having failed, the army was placed under the command of General Terry. Protected by a terrible fire from the fleet, a column of sailors and one of soldiers worked their way, by a series of trenches, within two hundred yards of the fort. At the word, the sailors leaped forward on one side and the soldiers on another. The sailors were repulsed, but the soldiers burst into the fort. The hand-to-hand fight within lasted for hours. Late at night, the garrison, hemmed in on all sides, surrendered (January 15, 1865). One knows not which to admire the more, the gallantry of the attack or the heroism of the defense. With the capture of Fort Fisher, the last Confederate port was closed.

The Sanitary Commission and the Christian Commission were splendid examples of organized mercy furnished by the people of the North. They devised and provided every possible comfort for the sick and wounded, besides distributing religious reading to every soldier in the field. Ambulances, stretchers, hot coffee, postage stamps, paper and envelopes, prayer meetings, medicines, Christian burial — every want of body or soul was provided for. Homes for men on sick leave, and for those not yet under or just out of the care of the government, or who had been left by their regiments; feeding stations for the tired and hungry, and even homes for the wives, mothers, and children of soldiers who had come to visit their sick or wounded, were established. On every flag-of-truce boat were placed clothing, medicines, and cordials for the prisoners who had been exchanged. With boundless mercy, they cared for all while living, and gave

Christian burial and marked graves to the dead. Over $17,000,000 in money and supplies was expended by these two commissions.

Political Affairs.—In the North there was much dissatisfaction with the conduct of the war. The debt had become about $2,000,000,000. In July, 1864, paper money reached its greatest depreciation, and it required two dollars and ninety cents in greenbacks to buy one dollar in gold. This was the time of Grant's repulse from Cold Harbor and of Early's raid. Yet, in the midst of these discouragements, Abraham Lincoln was renominated by the Republican party. George B. McClellan was the Democratic candidate; he stood firmly for the prosecution of the war and the maintenance of the Union, but was not in full sympathy with the policy of the administration. He carried only three States. Lincoln had a popular majority of over 400,000.

General Review of the Fourth Year of the War.—The Confederates had gained the battles of Sabine Crossroads, Bermuda Hundred, Spottsylvania, New Market, Cold Harbor, and Monocacy River; they had defeated the expeditions into Florida[1] and the Red River country, and yet held Grant at bay before Richmond and Petersburg. They had, however, lost ground on every side, and every one of the Southern States had encountered the attack of Union forces. The Federals had gained the battles of Resaca, Dallas, Kenesaw, Atlanta, Winchester, Fishers Hill, Cedar Creek, Nashville, and many others. They had captured Fort McAllister and the forts in Mobile harbor, and had taken Atlanta and Savannah. Sherman had swept across

[1] This expedition was fitted out by General Gillmore to recover Florida. After some success, his troops, under General Seymour, advanced to OLUSTEE, where (February 20) they met a disastrous defeat and were forced to relinquish much they had gained. The men were afterwards taken to Virginia to engage in more important work.

Georgia; Sheridan had devastated the Shenandoah valley, driving its defenders before him; Thomas had annihilated Hood's army; Grant held Lee firmly grasped at Richmond; and the navy swept the entire coast.

COLLATERAL READING

Sherman's March to the Sea.—Schouler's *History of the United States*, vol. vi. pp. 546–555.

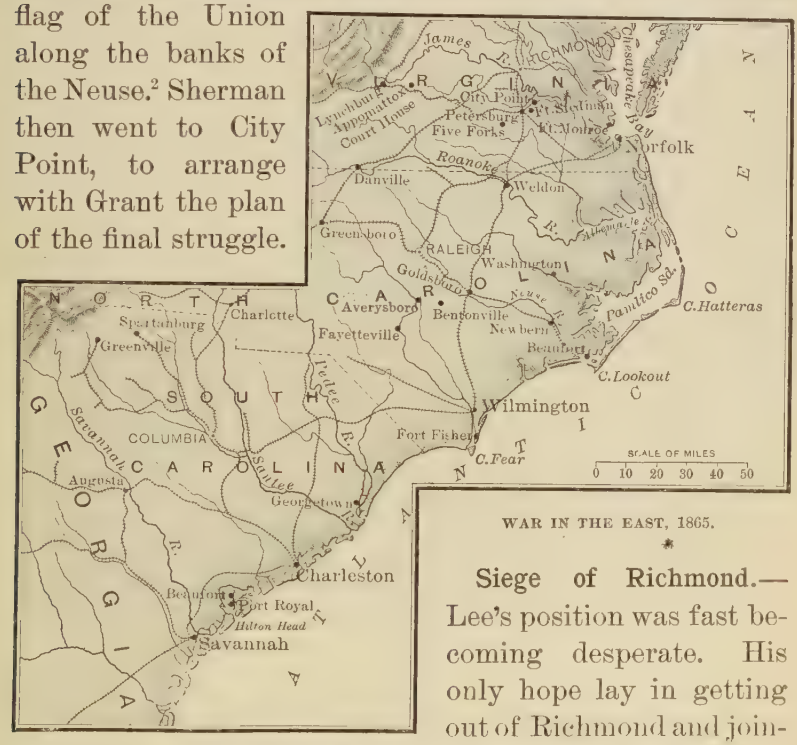
1865

The Situation.— The plan of the campaign was very simple. The end of the war was clearly at hand. Sherman was to move north from Savannah and then join Grant in the final attack upon Lee. Sheridan, with 10,000 troopers, swept across from the Shenandoah, cut the railroads north of the James, and took his place in the Union lines before Petersburg. Large bodies of Federal cavalry, under Wilson and Stoneman, were operating in Alabama and western Virginia and North Carolina.

Sherman's March through the Carolinas.— After a month's rest in Savannah, Sherman's troops were put in motion northward early in February. There was no waiting for roads to dry or for bridges to be built, but the troops swept on like a tornado. Rivers were waded, and one battle was fought on ground that was covered with water. The army, about 60,000 strong, moved in four columns, with a front of more than fifty miles. Cavalry and foragers swarmed on the flanks. Before them was terror; behind them were ashes.

Columbia was captured (February 17). That night nearly the entire city was burned to the ground. Charleston, threatened in the rear, was evacuated the next day. Then there were fierce battles at AVERYSBORO and BENTONVILLE, where the Confederates were commanded by

Johnston.[1] Sherman next pressed forward to Goldsboro, in order to join Schofield, who had made his way thither from Newbern, and Terry, who had come up from Wilmington. Soon the three armies united, and 100,000 men upheld the flag of the Union along the banks of the Neuse.[2] Sherman then went to City Point, to arrange with Grant the plan of the final struggle.



WAR IN THE EAST, 1865.

Siege of Richmond.—Lee's position was fast becoming desperate. His only hope lay in getting out of Richmond and joining Johnston. Their united armies might prolong the struggle. Grant was determined to prevent this and compel Lee to surrender,[3] as he had forced Pemberton to do.

[1] This Confederate army, about 20,000 strong, was made up of the remnant of Hood's army, troops that had been defending Savannah and other towns, and State militia.

[2] The distance traversed by the army in going from Savannah to Goldsboro was about 425 miles. The country was generally wild and swampy. To make the mud roads passable, each column "corduroyed" with rails and logs over 100 miles, besides building bridges across the many streams and rivers. Yet, in fifty days after breaking camp upon the Savannah, the troops bivouacked upon the Neuse.

[3] Lee decided to attack Grant's line in order to hide his plan of retreat, and especially in the hope that Grant would send troops from the left to succor the threatened

Battle of Five Forks (April 1).— The final movement began Wednesday morning, March 29. Sheridan, with his cavalry—9000 sabers—and heavy columns of infantry, pushed out from Grant's left wing to get around in Lee's rear. At Five Forks the Confederate force was overwhelmed, all their artillery captured, and more than 5000 men taken prisoners. Lee's position was now untenable. His right was turned and his rear threatened.

Capture of Petersburg and Richmond (April 2, 3).— The next morning, at four o'clock, the Union army advanced in an overwhelming assault along the whole front. By noon the Confederate line of intrenchments, before which the Army of the Potomac had lain so long, was broken, and thousands of prisoners were captured. That night Petersburg and Richmond were evacuated. The next morning the Union troops took possession of the Confederate capital, the coveted goal of the Army of the Potomac for four long bloody years.

Lee's Surrender.— Meanwhile Lee, having only the wreck of that proud array with which he had dealt the Union army so many crushing blows, hurried west, seeking some avenue of escape. Grant urged the pursuit with untiring energy. Food now failed the Confederates, and many could get only the young shoots of trees to eat. If they sought a moment's repose, they were awakened by the clatter of pursuing cavalry. Lee, like a hunted fox, turned hither and thither; but at last Sheridan in strong force planted himself squarely across the front. Lee made

point. In that case he would slip out, with the main body of his army, by the nearest road southward, which ran close by the Union left. FORT STEDMAN was assaulted and captured, but was at once retaken by the Federals (March 25). Of the attacking force about 3000 were lost. To make matters worse, a Union assault followed directly afterwards, and a portion of the Confederate outer defenses was captured. Thus Grant's grip was only tightened. He had made no change in the position of his troops, and this sortie neither hastened nor delayed the final attack.

ready for battle, and the Civil War seemed about to end in one of its bloodiest tragedies, when the Confederate advance was stopped. General Grant had already sent in a note demanding the surrender of the army. Lee accepted the terms;[1] and in the afternoon of April 9 the remains of the Army of Virginia laid down their arms

ARRANGING LEE'S SURRENDER.

near Appomattox Court House, and then turned homeward, no longer Confederate soldiers, but American citizens.

[1] The officers and men were allowed to go home on their paroles not to take up arms against the United States until exchanged, and the former were to retain their private baggage and horses. After the surrender had been concluded, General Lee said that he had forgotten to mention that many of his soldiers rode their own horses. Grant at once replied that such should keep their horses to aid them in their future work at home. The two armies so fiercely opposed for four years parted with words of sympathy and respect—an assured presage of a day when all the wounds of the cruel war should be fully healed. The Federal authorities state that 28,356 officers and men were paroled at Appomattox Court House and 22,633 small arms were given up. The Confederate accounts, however, place the men and arms surrendered at a much less number. The total number paroled from all the Confederate armies was 174,223.

The Effect.— This closed the war. The other Confederate armies promptly surrendered, that under Johnston on April 26, near Raleigh, N. C.[1] Jefferson Davis fled southward, hoping to escape, but was overtaken in Georgia (May 10), and sent a prisoner to Fort Monroe.

Results of the War.— Besides dooming slavery, this war settled forever the question of "State rights." The doctrines of nullification and secession were dead. The arbitrament of the sword had decided that no State, having once joined the Union, can ever secede. The rights of the States as defined in the United States Constitution remained as sacred as ever; but it was settled for all time that the United States is one nation, rather than a league of sovereign states.

Cost of the War.— In the Union armies, over 300,000 men were killed in battle or died of wounds or disease, and 200,000 more were crippled for life. If the Confederate armies suffered as heavily, the country thus lost 1,000,000 able-bodied men. The Union debt, when largest (August 31, 1865), was in round numbers $2,845,000,000:[2] but this was far from representing the entire expense of the war.[3] The Confederate war debts were never paid, as that government was overthrown.

Assassination of Lincoln.— In the midst of the universal rejoicings over the advent of peace, on the evening

[1] The last fight of the war happened near Brazos Santiago, Tex., May 13. A small expedition sent out to surprise a Confederate camp was overtaken, on its return, by a larger force, and defeated with a loss of 80 men.

[2] The *interest-bearing* debt (bonds and notes) was $2,382,000,000; beginning with 1866, this was reduced year by year until in 1893 it was only $585,000,000. In 1900 it was $1,023,000,000. The non-interest-bearing debt in 1865 consisted chiefly of greenbacks (United States notes), which had been made legal tender and thus forced into circulation as paper money, to the extent of $449,000,000. Some of these notes which were paid into the United States treasury were canceled and destroyed, but this cancellation was stopped in 1878, and ever since the amount of these notes has been $346,681,016.

[3] States and cities gave millions toward the expense of the war, and the national government raised large sums by many kinds of taxation.

of April 14 the intelligence was flashed over the country that Lincoln had been assassinated.[1] While seated with his wife and friends in his box at Ford's Theater, he was shot by John Wilkes Booth,[2] who insanely imagined he was ridding his country of a tyrant. The stricken President was carried to a private house near by, where, around his unconscious body, gathered the most prominent men of the nation, who mourned and watched, waiting in vain for some sign of recognition, until the next morning, when he died.[3]

NEW STATES (1861–1865)

West Virginia, the thirty-fifth State, was admitted to the Union June 19, 1863. This western part of the old State of Virginia was strongly opposed to the ordinance of secession adopted by the convention of that State. The people there who were in favor of the Union set up a government which was recognized by the Federal authorities as the government of Virginia, although it controlled only the smaller part of the State. It was the legislature of this "Restored Government of Virginia" which gave consent to the formation of the new State of West Virginia, as required by the United States Constitution in the case of any new State formed by the division of an old one.

Nevada, the thirty-sixth State, was admitted to the Union October 31, 1864. It is part of the territory ceded by Mexico. Its first settlement was at Carson City. Nevada Territory was formed, in 1861, from part of the original Territory of Utah. Two years after its admission as a State, its area was increased by additions on the east and south.

[1] A nearly fatal attempt was also made at the same time upon William H. Seward, Secretary of State, who was lying sick in his bed at home.

[2] Booth stealthily entered the box, fastened the door, that he might not be followed, shot the President, then, waving his pistol, shouted, "Sic semper tyrannis" (So be it always to tyrants), and leaped to the stage in front. As he jumped, the American flag draped before the box — mute avenger of the nation's chief — caught his spur, and, throwing him heavily, broke his leg. In the confusion, however, the assassin escaped, mounted a horse waiting for him, and fled. He was at length overtaken in a barn in Virginia, and was shot while resisting arrest. His accomplices were arrested, tried, and convicted. Four were hanged; three were condemned to imprisonment for life; and one was sentenced for six years.

[3] The funeral was held on the 19th. It was a day of mourning throughout the land In most of the cities and towns funeral orations were pronounced. The body was borne to Springfield over the same route along which Lincoln had come as President-elect to Washington. The procession may be said to have extended the entire distance. The churches, principal buildings, and even the engines and cars were draped in black. Almost every citizen wore the badge of mourning.

EPOCH V. THE CIVIL WAR.

1861.

1. Inauguration of Lincoln.
2. Condition of the Country.
3. Capture of Fort Sumter.
4. War in the East.
   - a. Capture of Arlington Heights and Alexandria.
   - b. Battle of Big Bethel.
   - c. Campaign in western Virginia.
     - a. *General McClellan.*
     - b. *General Rosecrans.*
   - d. Battle of Bull Run.
   - e. Balls Bluff.
5. War in the West.
6. War on the Sea and on the Coast.
   - a. Privateers.
   - b. Naval Expeditions.
   - c. Trent Affair.
7. General Review of the First Year of the War.

1862.

1. The Situation.
2. War in the West.
   - a. The Situation.
   - b. Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson.
   - c. Battle of Shiloh.
   - d. Capture of Island No. 10.
   - e. Bragg's Kentucky Expedition.
     - a. *Smith's Invasion.*
     - b. *Bragg's Invasion.*
     - c. *Battle of Perryville.*
   - f. Battles of Iuka and Corinth.
   - g. Battle of Murfreesboro.
   - h. First Vicksburg Expedition.
3. War on the Sea and on the Coast.
   - a. Capture of New Orleans.
   - b. Burnside's Expedition.
   - c. Florida and Georgia Expeditions.
   - d. Merrimac and Monitor.
4. War in the East.
   - a. The Peninsular Campaign.
     - a. *Siege of Yorktown.*
     - b. *Battle of Williamsburg.*
     - c. *Richmond Threatened.*
     - d. *Shenandoah Campaign.*
     - e. *Battle of Fair Oaks.*
     - f. *Union Army Checked.*
     - g. *Seven Days' Battles.*
   - b. Campaign against Pope.
     - a. *The Situation.*
     - b. *Lee's Plan.*
     - c. *Second Battle of Bull Run.*
   - c. Invasion of Maryland.
     - a. *Battle of South Mountain.*
     - b. *Capture of Harpers Ferry.*
     - c. *Battle of Antietam.*
   - d. Battle of Fredericksburg.
5. General Review of the Second Year of the War.

1863.

1. The Situation.
2. Second Expedition against Vicksburg.
   - a. Movement against Pemberton.
   - b. Defeat of Johnston.
   - c. Siege of Vicksburg.
3. War in Tennessee and Georgia.
   - a. The Situation.
   - b. Battle of Chickamauga.
   - c. Battle of Chattanooga.
4. War in the East.
   - a. Battle of Chancellorsville.
   - b. Lee's Second Invasion of the North.
     - a. *Lee's Plan.*
     - b. *Battle of Gettysburg.*
5. War on the Sea and on the Coast.
6. General Review of the Third Year of the War.

1864.

1. The Situation.
2. War in Tennessee and Georgia.
   - a. Advance upon Atlanta.
   - b. Capture of Atlanta.
   - c. Hood's Invasion of Tennessee.
     - a. *Hood's Plan.*
     - b. *Battle of Nashville.*
   - d. Sherman's March to the Sea.
3. War in Virginia.
   - a. Battle of the Wilderness.
   - b. Battle of Spottsylvania.
   - c. Battle of Cold Harbor.
   - d. Attack on Petersburg.
     - a. *The Situation.*
     - b. *Grant's Plan.*
   - e. Siege of Richmond.
     - a. *Mine Explosion.*
     - b. *Attack upon the Weldon Railroad.*
   - f. Early's Raid.
   - g. Sheridan's Campaign in the Shenandoah Valley.
4. War on the Sea and on the Coast.
   - a. The Blockade.
   - b. Confederate Cruisers.
   - c. Expedition against Mobile Bay.
   - d. Expedition against Fort Fisher.
5. The Sanitary and Christian Commissions.
6. Political Affairs in the North.
7. General Review of the Fourth Year of the War.

1865.

1. The Situation.
2. Sherman's March through the Carolinas.
3. Siege of Richmond.
   - a. Lee's Hope and Grant's Plan.
   - b. Battle of Five Forks.
   - c. Capture of Petersburg and Richmond.
4. Lee's Surrender.
5. Results of the War.
6. Cost of the War.
7. Assassination of Lincoln.
8. New States.

EPOCH VI.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATION (SINCE 1865)

This epoch begins with the nation exhausted by civil war, but freed at last from the nightmare of disunion. The awakened power of the North quickly turns to an industrial expansion surpassing the wildest dreams. The South, crushed by defeat and devastation, has first to restore her ruins and accustom herself to the new system of free labor and freedmen's rights. Yet within a generation the reunited sections are advancing with even pace. The farther West now quickly grows to maturity. Indian reservations are reduced to smaller compass. Before the end of the century, however, nearly all the tillable public land is occupied; the nation looks abroad for an outlet to its surplus energy, and takes its place among the world powers in the larger politics of the globe.

The Civil War left many questions to be settled in this epoch. What was the political status of the late seceded States, and how should they resume their places in the Union? What rights should be given to the emancipated negro? What was to be done with the greenbacks, which for a long time formed the chief money[1] in circulation?

[1] Besides these United States notes, there were also in circulation — as there are still — many national banknotes; that is, notes issued by banks established under laws passed by Congress in 1864 and later. In 1865 Congress put an end to State banknotes by levying a tax of ten per cent on their circulation. The national banks deposit United States bonds in the national treasury to secure the payment of the banknotes, and their payment is guaranteed by the national government.

The great industrial expansion also created many problems, or gave new life to old ones. During the war the tariff duties on imports had been largely extended and increased in the effort to raise all possible revenue. Now, with the growth of our manufactures and trade, vast interests were affected by the tariff question: should the duties be kept high to increase the profits of the producer, or should they be lowered so as to lessen the cost of goods to the consumer? Vast interests also were involved in the money question: should the dollar of commerce mean, ultimately, a certain amount of gold, or the debtor's choice between that amount of gold and a certain amount of silver, or merely a paper greenback? Vast interests also were involved in the relations between labor and capital. As the short railroads of earlier days were, under the lash of competition, joined into trunk systems, and as similar unions of companies and corporations took place in various branches of manufacture, so, step by step, the trades unions of laborers were combined in a more thorough organization. Conflicts between organized labor and organized capital became widespread and disastrous: how should such injury be avoided?

We shall find in this epoch that some of the problems have been solved, but that others remain to tax the wisdom of the statesman and prove the patriotism of the citizen.

JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION (1865–1869)[1]

The death of Lincoln produced no disorder, and within three hours thereafter the Vice President, Andrew Johnson, quietly assumed the duties of the presidency.

[1] Andrew Johnson was born in Raleigh, N. C., 1808; died 1875. When ten years old he was apprenticed to a tailor. Never having been at school, he yet determined to secure an education. From a fellow-workman he learned the alphabet, and from a

Disbanding of the Army.— At the close of the war the Union army numbered 1,000,000 soldiers. Within six months they had nearly all returned home. Thus the mightiest host ever called to the field by a republic went back without disturbance to the tranquil pursuits of civil life. Other nations prophesied that such a vast army could not be disbanded peaceably. The republic, by this final triumph of law and order, proved itself the most stable government in the world.[1]

Domestic Affairs.— *Reconstruction Policy of the President.*— Johnson recognized the State governments that, during the war, had been formed in Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana, under the protection of the Union army. In the other States he appointed provisional governors, and authorized the calling of conventions to form loyal governments. These conventions accordingly met, repealed the ordinances of secession, repudiated the Confederate war debt, and ratified a thirteenth amendment to the Constitution (abolishing slavery), which Congress had offered early in 1865. This done, Johnson claimed that the States, having never been legally out of the Union, should be restored to their rights in the Union. He also issued a proclamation of pardon to those who had

friend something of spelling. Thenceforth, after working from ten to twelve hours a day at his trade, he spent two or three hours every night in study. In 1826 he went west to seek his fortune, with true filial affection carrying with him his mother, who was dependent on his labor for support. After his marriage at Greeneville, Tenn., he continued his studies under the instruction of his wife, pursuing his trade as before by day. His political life began with his election as alderman. He was successively chosen mayor, member of legislature, State senator, congressman, governor, United States senator, and Vice President.

[1] A grand review of the armies of Grant and Sherman, 200,000 strong, took place in the presence of the President and his cabinet. For twelve hours this triumphal procession, thirty miles long, massed in solid column twenty men deep, marched through the broad avenues of the capital. Many of the Federal soldiers and sailors soon afterwards formed the society called the Grand Army of the Republic, which exerted a great influence in fostering the spirit of patriotism.

engaged in secession, except certain classes,[1] on the condition of taking the oath of allegiance to the United States.

The Thirteenth Amendment, abolishing slavery, having thus been ratified by the requisite number of States, was declared (December 18, 1865) duly adopted as a part of the Constitution of the United States.

Reconstruction Policy of Congress.— When Congress met (December, 1865), it took decided ground against the policy of the President. It refused to admit the senators and representatives from the eleven seceded States, and prescribed new conditions for the readmission of these States, among them the ratification of a fourteenth amendment to the Constitution (guaranteeing equal civil rights to all). The Civil Rights, Freedmen's Bureau, and Tenure of Office bills[2] were all passed over the President's veto.

Seceded States Admitted.— Tennessee promptly ratified the Fourteenth Amendment, as Congress required, and was restored to her former position in the Union (1866). The other ten provisional governments having refused to do so, a bill was passed placing those States under military rule. The generals in command caused a registry of voters to be made and elections to be held for conventions to remodel the State constitutions. After a bitter and protracted struggle, new governments were established in Arkansas, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, and North and South Carolina,[3] and their representatives were ad-

[1] Many of the persons thus excluded obtained pardons from the President by personal application. One complaint against him was the readiness with which he granted such pardons.

[2] The first bill guaranteed to the negroes the civil rights of citizenship. Under the provisions of the second bill, national officers cared for and protected the freedmen, i.e. the emancipated slaves, and also the destitute whites in the South. The third bill made the consent of the Senate necessary to the removal by the President of any person from a civil office; this act was modified in 1869 and repealed in 1887.

[3] As a requisite demanded by Congress for holding office, every candidate was obliged to swear that he had not participated in the secession movement. Since few

mitted to Congress (1868), over the President's veto, after an unrepresented period of seven years.[1]

Impeachment of the President.—The constantly increasing hostility between the President and Congress came to an issue when the former attempted to remove Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War. This being considered a violation of the Tenure of Office Act, the impeachment of the President was at last ordered (1868). After a tedious trial he was acquitted, the two-thirds majority in the Senate necessary for conviction lacking one vote.

The Fourteenth Amendment (declared adopted July 28, 1868) guaranteed equal civil rights to all, regardless of race or color, and provided for reducing the representation in Congress of such States as should deny the suffrage to any of their male citizens twenty-one years of age.[2]

New State admitted—Nebraska (p. 359).

Foreign Affairs.—*The French in Mexico.*—While the United States was absorbed in the Civil War, Napoleon III., emperor of France, took advantage of the opportunity to secure a foothold in America. By the assistance of the French army, the imperialists of Mexico defeated

Southerners could take this "ironclad oath," as it was termed, and since the negroes were now allowed to vote, most of the officeholders were either negroes or Northern men who had gone south after the war, and were, therefore, called "carpet-baggers." Under the rule of these men, in several Southern States, taxes were heavily increased, much public money was spent foolishly or stolen, and the State debts were increased by many millions of dollars for which the people received little or no benefit.

[1] Georgia was soon accused of trying to evade the conditions of her restoration to the Union, and her representatives were again excluded from Congress. Virginia, Mississippi, Texas, and Georgia were finally readmitted in 1870.

[2] Except for "participation in rebellion or other crime." The intention was to secure negro suffrage by making it to the political interest of the States to allow every man to vote; see also the Fifteenth Amendment (p. 319). Nevertheless, since 1890, several Southern States have amended their constitutions so as to exclude from voting, with some exceptions, those who can not read and write, or who do not pay a certain tax; and a few Northern States also impose educational or other qualifications on their voters. By these restrictions many negroes and some others are denied the suffrage; but Congress has not applied the Fourteenth Amendment to any of these cases.

the liberals, and Maximilian, archduke of Austria, was chosen emperor. In accordance with the Monroe Doctrine, the United States considered this an unfriendly act on the part of France. When our government was relieved from the pressure of civil strife, it demanded of Napoleon the recall of the French troops, and Napoleon recalled them. Maximilian, deprived of foreign aid, was defeated, captured, and (June 19, 1867) shot by the Mexican liberals. Thus ended the dream of French dominion on this continent.

Laying of the Atlantic Cable.— While these great political events were happening, science achieved a peaceful triumph whose importance far transcended the victories of diplomatic or military skill. A telegraphic cable 1864 miles in length was laid from Valentia Bay, in Ireland, to Heart's Content, Newfoundland.[1] The two continents were thus brought into almost instant communication.

Purchase of Alaska (1867).— Through the diplomacy of William H. Seward, Secretary of State, Alaska (p. 349) was purchased of Russia for $7,200,000 in gold. Later (1884) it was organized as a civil and judicial district.

Treaty with China (1868).— An embassy from the Chinese Empire, under the charge of Anson Burlingame, American ambassador to China, visited the United States. It was the first event of its kind in the history of that

[1] The success of this enterprise was due to the energy of Cyrus W. Field. In 1856 the line was finished from New York to St. Johns, Newfoundland, a distance of over 1000 miles. Then, in 1858, after repeated failures, a cable was laid across the Atlantic. But after a few messages had been sent by it, the cable ceased to work. The time and money spent seemed a total loss. Mr. Field alone was undismayed. The company was revived, $3,000,000 was subscribed, and a new cable was manufactured. In July, 1865, the *Great Eastern* began laying this cable, but in mid-ocean it parted and sank to the bottom. Again Mr. Field raised a new company, and made a third cable. The *Great Eastern* sailed with this in June, 1866, and successfully laid it. The vessel then sailed back to the spot where the cable of 1865 had parted, found the lost cable, brought it to the surface, and, splicing it, laid the remaining portion. The two cables were found to work admirably. A dispatch has been sent across the ocean by a battery made in a gun cap. Since that time many other ocean cables have been laid.

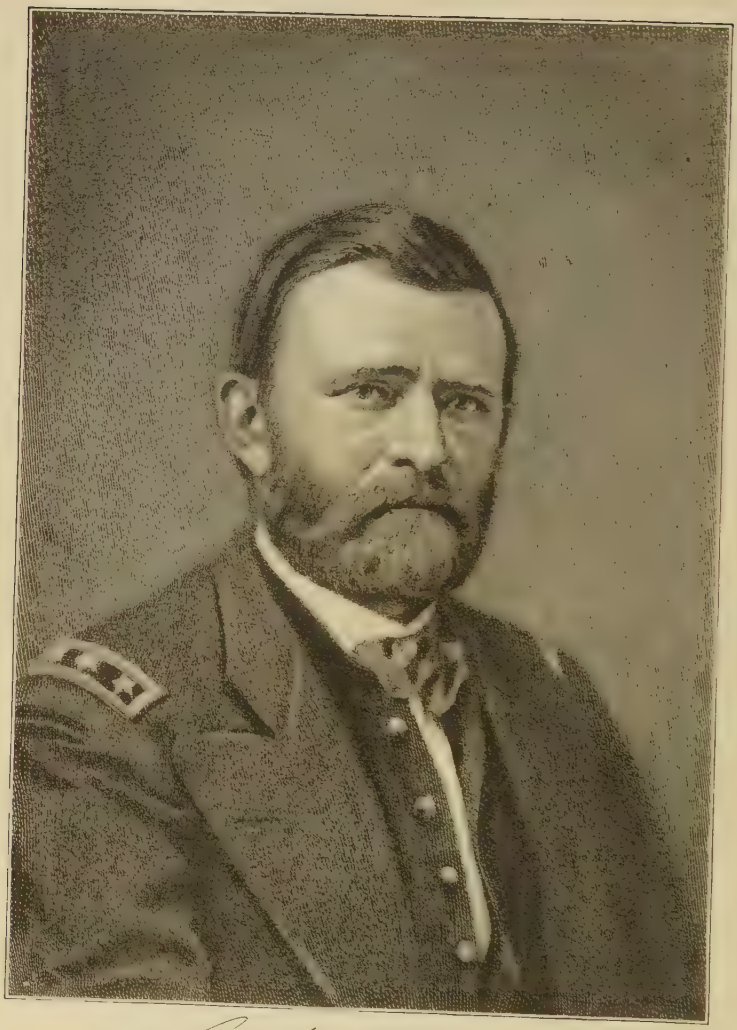
exclusive nation. A treaty was perfected, granting to us valuable commercial privileges.

Political Parties.— The Republican party nominated General Ulysses S. Grant for President. The Democratic party nominated Horatio Seymour, ex-governor of New York. The "reconstruction" of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas not yet being complete, these States were not allowed to vote. Grant was elected.

GRANT'S ADMINISTRATION (1869–1877)[1]

Domestic Affairs.— *Pacific Railroads.*— The year 1869 was made memorable by the opening of the first Pacific railroad, connecting Omaha and Sacramento. This great highway linked the West to the East by iron bands, carried thousands of pioneers into the hitherto wild country along its course, developed fresh sources of industry and mines of wealth, and opened a new route for the silks, teas, and spices of Asia. The next year the Northern Pacific Railroad, from St. Paul and Lake Superior to Puget Sound, was begun; and as it progressed to completion thousands of people moved to new homes along its route. The government gave millions of acres of public land to these railroads. Other millions of acres were sold for

[1] Hiram Ulysses Grant was born at Point Pleasant, Ohio, April 27, 1822; died 1885. He was unwilling to follow his father's trade, that of a tanner, and at seventeen he secured an appointment to West Point. His name having been wrongly registered, Grant vainly attempted to set the matter right, but finally accepted his "manifest destiny," assumed the change thus forced upon him, and thenceforth signed himself "Ulysses Simpson," the latter being his mother's family name. Two years after completing his four years' course as cadet, the Mexican war broke out, in which Grant conducted himself with great gallantry, receiving especial mention and promotion. A few years later he retired to private life, where he remained until the opening of the Civil War. He was then appointed to command a company of volunteers, and soon afterwards was commissioned as colonel of the Twenty-first Illinois Regiment. His military and political career was henceforth a part of the country's history. A plain, quiet, gentle, unostentatious, reticent man, he attracted little attention to himself personally. But his inflexible resolution, that held steadily to its purpose through



U. S. Grant

cash, at higher prices than before; and still others[1] were given to actual settlers under the Homestead Act (of 1862) which secured 80 or 160 acres to a person who lived on the land and cultivated it for five years.

The Fifteenth Amendment, which says the right of suffrage shall not be denied to any one on account of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude," having been ratified by the requisite number of States, was formally announced as a part of the Constitution (March 30, 1870).

AFTER THE CHICAGO FIRE.

Fires.—1. A great fire broke out in Chicago, Sunday night, October 8, 1871. For two days it raged with tre-

every delay and disaster; his fertility of resource to meet each movement of his wary opponents; his power of handling great masses of men, and of maneuvering in concert the widely separated Federal armies; his unruffled calmness, alike in moments of defeat and of triumph; his prompt action in an emergency, as if he had foreseen and prepared for it; above all, his sublime faith in his ultimate and perfect success, inspired his companions in arms with an intense devotion, and made him seem to them the very "incarnation of the cause for which they were fighting." After the close of his administration he made the tour of the world, and was everywhere received with marked enthusiasm and honor. His tomb is in New York city beside the Hudson River.

[1] From 2,000,000 to 9,000,000 acres every year since 1867.

mendous violence, devastating nearly five square miles. Twenty-five thousand buildings were burned, and 100,000 persons were rendered homeless. Contributions for the sufferers were taken in nearly all parts of the world, and over $7,500,000 was raised. 2. During the same autumn unusually widespread conflagrations raged in the forests of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Michigan. Entire villages were consumed. Fifteen hundred people perished in Wisconsin alone. 3. An extensive fire occurred in Boston, November 9, 1872. It swept over sixty acres in the center of the wholesale trade of that city, and destroyed $70,000,000 worth of property.

Railroad Panic.— In the autumn of 1873 Jay Cooke & Co., bankers of Philadelphia, having engaged too extensively in railroad schemes, failed. A financial crisis ensued, and hundreds of prominent firms all over the Union were involved in ruin. A settled stringency of the money market and a stagnation of business followed.

Indian Wars.— 1. The Modoc Indians having refused to stay on their reservation in Oregon, troops were sent against them (1873). They retreated to their fastnesses in the lava beds in northern California, where the roughness of the ground made attack difficult. At a conference with peace commissioners they treacherously slew two, whereupon the war against them was renewed. Finally they left the lava beds and were captured.

2. The Sioux Indians having refused to go upon the reservation assigned them by treaty, a force of regular troops was sent against them (1876). General Custer led the advance with the Seventh Cavalry, while General Terry moved up the Big Horn to attack them in the rear. On the 25th of June General Custer suddenly came upon the enemy. Without waiting for support, he detached

Colonel Reno with three companies to fall upon the back of the Indian village, while he charged the savages in front. A desperate conflict ensued. General Custer, his two brothers, his nephew, and every one of his men were

THE CUSTER MASSACRE.

killed. Colonel Reno was surrounded, but held his ground on the bluffs until reënforcements arrived. The Indians were soon beaten on every hand.

Centennial Exhibition.— The year 1875, the hundredth anniversary of the first year of the Revolutionary War, was marked by various centennial observances. To commemorate the signing of the Declaration of Independence, an exhibition of the arts and industries of all nations was held at Philadelphia during the summer of 1876. The beautiful grounds of Fairmount Park were the scene of this imposing display. The lower floor of the Main

Exhibition Building covered more than twenty acres. There were more than 200 smaller structures scattered over the extensive grounds. The exhibition lasted six months, and was visited by nearly ten millions of people.

New State.— Colorado was admitted to the Union this year (1876), and hence is called the "Centennial State."

Foreign Affairs.— *Treaty of Washington.*— The refusal of the British government to pay for the damages to American commerce caused by the *Alabama* and other Confederate cruisers (p. 300) produced bitter feeling and even threatened war. A commission composed of distinguished statesmen and jurists from both countries met in Washington and arranged the basis of a treaty between the United States and Great Britain, settling this and other causes of dispute (1871). According to its provisions, the claim for losses was submitted to a board of arbitrators, who, having convened at Geneva, in Switzerland, awarded the United States $15,500,000. A dispute as to the boundary between the United States and British Columbia, involving the ownership of a small group of islands between Vancouver and the mainland, was submitted to the emperor of Germany, and was decided in favor of the United States.[1] Thus, happily, all danger of

DISPUTED BOUNDARY NEAR VANCOUVER.

[1] Also, a dispute about the fisheries of the northeastern coast — involving compensation claimed for privileges granted to American fishermen in Canada and Newfoundland — was referred to a commission, which awarded (1878) Great Britain the sum of $5,500,000.

war was averted, and the great principle of the settlement of disputes by peaceful arbitration rather than by the sword was firmly established.

Political Parties.— Before the end of Grant's first term there arose dissensions in the Republican party. In 1872 the Liberal Republicans — those opposed to the administration and in favor of a more liberal treatment of the South — nominated Horace Greeley[1] of New York for President, and this nomination was endorsed by the Democratic party. But the regular Republicans nominated and reëlected President Grant.

Four years later, the Republican party nominated Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio, and the Democratic party nominated Samuel J. Tilden of New York.[2] This presidential

[1] Horace Greeley was born at Amherst, N. H., 1811; died 1872. At two years of age he began to study the newspapers given him for amusement, and at four could read anything placed before him. At six he was somewhat versed in geography and arithmetic, and had read the entire Bible. His passion for books increased with his years, and in early youth he became a printer, learning the trade in East Poultney, Vt. In 1831 he went to New York, and, Franklin-like, walked the streets in search of work. When he secured it he showed marked diligence and integrity. Ten years later he founded the New York *Tribune*, and as editor of this newspaper he exerted a wide influence the rest of his life. He served in Congress in 1848-49. When civil war seemed imminent he advocated a peaceable division of the country; but after it opened he urged a vigorous prosecution of hostilities. At the close of the war he pleaded for immediate conciliation, and was a signer of the bail bond which restored Jefferson Davis to liberty after two years' imprisonment in Fort Monroe. Just before the close of the presidential canvass his wife died, and this, together with the desertion of friends and the excitement of the contest, unsettled his mind. He was taken to a private asylum, where he died a few weeks after the election.

[2] The principal political questions which agitated the country during this campaign were the Southern policy of the government, and civil service reform. (1) It was held on one side that negroes and Republicans in the South were intimidated by force and prevented from voting, and that the presence of the United States troops was necessary to the preservation of the rights of the citizens, free discussion, a free ballot, and an enforcement of the laws. It was asserted, on the other side, that the use of the troops for such purposes was unconstitutional; that the intimidation was only imaginary, or could be readily controlled by the local authorities; and that the presence of the military provoked violence and was a constant insult and menace to the States. (2) President Jackson, as we have seen (p. 205), introduced into our politics the principle of "rotation in office." This policy steadily gained favor until Marcy's maxim, "To the victors belong the spoils," became the commonly accepted

campaign was so hotly contested, and such irregularities were charged against the elections in Oregon, South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana, that both parties claimed the victory. The Constitution does not expressly state how the electoral votes shall be counted (read the Twelfth Amendment). A rule which Congress had made was unsatisfactory, but as the Senate was now Republican and the House Democratic, they were unable for a long time to agree on a new rule. Finally, in order to settle the dispute, Congress referred the contested election returns to a JOINT ELECTORAL COMMISSION, composed of five senators, five representatives, and five judges of the Supreme Court. This body, by a vote of eight to seven, decided the contest in each case in favor of the Republicans. This made the electoral vote for Hayes 185, and for Tilden 184; and Hayes was therefore declared to be elected.

HAYES'S ADMINISTRATION (1877–1881)[1]

Domestic Affairs.—*United States Troops in the South Withdrawn.*—President Hayes's Southern policy was one of conciliation. The troops which had hitherto sustained the Republican State governments in South Carolina and

view, and after every important election the successful party was accustomed to fill even the menial offices of government with its favorites. Under such a system, the qualification of the applicant was of much less importance than the service he had done the party. Hayes promised to make "no dismissal except for cause, and no promotion except for merit."

[1] Rutherford B. Hayes was born in Delaware, Ohio, 1822; died 1893. At sixteen he entered Kenyon College, where he was graduated as valedictorian of his class. After passing through the Harvard Law School, he was admitted to the bar in 1845. At the breaking out of the Civil War, he received a commission as major of the Twenty-third Ohio Volunteers. In camp he proved attentive to the wants of his men; in battle he inspired them with his own dashing bravery. While yet in the field he was elected to Congress, where he served two terms. Soon after, he was chosen governor of Ohio, being twice reëlected – the last time after a brilliant hard-money campaign which attracted national attention.

Louisiana were withdrawn, and Democratic officials at once took control of the local affairs.

Railroad Strike (1877).— In many branches of industry workmen had sometimes "struck" in attempts to improve the conditions of their employment; but up to this time the strikes had affected few besides the workmen and employers immediately concerned. Now, in the summer after Hayes's inauguration, occurred the first great strike that caused widespread injury to the general public. Beginning at Pittsburg on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, it quickly spread to other lines and paralyzed traffic on nearly all the principal roads in the Northern States. Alarming riots occurred in many cities, and regular troops and militia were required to disperse the rioters. At Pittsburg scores of lives were lost and several million dollars' worth of property was destroyed before order was finally restored.

Changes in Currency.—In 1873 Congress had demonetized silver, and made gold the sole standard of currency; but now, in 1878, the Bland-Allison Bill was passed, making silver dollars also a legal tender.[1] Then, in 1879, the government resumed specie payments—that is, began to pay gold for its paper money (p. 308); and, for the first time since 1862, gold sold at par.

Political Parties.— The Republicans elected James A. Garfield President, and Chester A. Arthur Vice President. The Democratic candidate for President was Winfield S.

[1] The law provided also for the purchase and coinage, each month, of from $2,000,000 to $4,000,000 worth of silver. An act of 1890 provided instead that the Secretary of the Treasury should buy each month 4,500,000 ounces of silver. These acts caused the use of much silver coin, but they did not restore silver to its original position beside gold as a *standard* money. Before 1873 any one could take either metal, in bullion, to the mint and receive the same amount in coin; that is, there was free coinage of both metals, and the monetary standard was bimetallic. Since 1873 there has been free coinage of gold only.

Hancock of Pennsylvania; the Greenback-Labor, James B. Weaver of Iowa.

GARFIELD AND ARTHUR'S ADMINISTRATION (1881–1885)[1]

Domestic Affairs.— *Assassination of President Garfield* (1881).— On the morning of July 2 the country was shocked by the news that the President, while standing in the railroad station at Washington, had been shot by a disappointed office seeker. The startling tidings produced an effect similar to that occasioned by the death of Lincoln. The wounded President lay for weeks hovering between life and death, an example of patience, fortitude, and courage. He died on the 19th of September. Vice-President Arthur now took the oath of office and assumed the duties of President.

[1] James Abram Garfield was born in Cuyahoga County, Ohio, 1831. His father cleared a small farm in what was then a wilderness, and, dying soon after the birth of his illustrious son, left his family in great poverty. Brought up amid stern surroundings, his education was neglected; but in his eighteenth year he was seized with a desire for knowledge, and during one or two winters attended a school at some distance from his home, paying his way by working afternoons and holidays at such employment as he could procure. After mastering the elementary branches, he taught a district school, meanwhile preparing himself for college. He entered Williams College in 1854, from which he was graduated with credit. Soon after, he accepted a professorship in an Institute at Hiram, Ohio. On the outbreak of the war Garfield offered his services to his country, and was commissioned as lieutenant colonel, and later as colonel of the Forty-second Ohio Volunteers. He took part in the siege of Corinth and in the battle of Chickamauga, and was promoted major general. While in the field he was elected to Congress. In this new sphere, he found opportunity for the development of rare political abilities. As a member of some of the most important committees of the House, he molded and influenced many important economic measures, and was in 1871 recognized as the leader of his party in the House. An earnest and diligent student, a profound thinker and an able orator, he brought to the presidency a wealth of knowledge, accomplishments, and experience such as few of our Presidents have possessed.

Chester Alan Arthur was born at Fairfield, Vt., 1830; died 1886. He was graduated at Union College (1848), and, having studied law, was admitted to the bar, where he soon obtained a high position. For a time during the Civil War he served as quartermaster general of the State of New York. In 1871 he was appointed collector of the port of New York city, and retained this post six years.

Chinese Exclusion (1882).— Many thousand Chinese having come to the Pacific coast of our country, great opposition arose to their continued immigration.[1] Finally a law was made forbidding the admission of any Chinese laborers for ten years.

A Civil Service Bill was passed (1883). Under this law a commission appointed by the President assists him in making and enforcing rules to govern civil service appointments and promotions. Applicants for positions in the "classified service" compete in examinations held under the supervision of the commission. By the law of 1883 and by orders of the Presidents who have held office since that time, a very large proportion of the government employees have been included in the classified service and thus removed from the operation of the spoils system (see p. 323, note 2). Civil service reform laws have also been adopted in many of the States.

Letter Postage was reduced from three cents to two cents for each half ounce in 1883, and in 1885 to two cents an ounce.[2]

New Navy Begun.— About the close of the Civil War the United States was the strongest naval power in the world. But with the return of peace our naval development stopped, and our navy gradually fell into decay, while foreign navies made rapid progress. Soon our navy was almost the weakest in the world. During this admin-

[1] The Burlingame treaty with China (p. 316) recognized the right of free migration. Therefore President Hayes once vetoed a bill to exclude the Chinese, because their exclusion, by breaking the treaty, would have been an affront to a friendly nation. But negotiations were promptly begun, resulting in a modification of the treaty (1880) whereby the United States may suspend, but not prohibit, the immigration of Chinese laborers.

[2] In 1792 the rate for letters was from six to twenty-five cents, according to the distance carried; in 1845, five cents for each half ounce if carried less than 300 miles, ten cents if over 300 miles; in 1851, three cents if less than 3000 miles.

istration a small beginning was made in building modern war ships, and thereafter a continuous and rapid growth of our new navy was maintained. To-day only a few countries are better prepared than ours for hostilities at sea.

Political Parties.— The nominees for President (1884) were: Democratic, Grover Cleveland of New York; Republican, James G. Blaine of Maine; People's party, B. F. Butler of Massachusetts; National Prohibition party, J. P. St. John of Kansas. The Democratic candidates were elected.

CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION (1885–1889)[1]

The inauguration of the new President brought the Democratic party into power for the first time since Buchanan left the White House, shortly before the outbreak of the Civil War.

Domestic Affairs.— *A Presidential Succession Law* was passed (1886), providing that if, at any time, there should be no President or Vice President, the office of President should devolve upon a member of the Cabinet,[2] the order

[1] Grover Cleveland was born in Caldwell, N. J., March 18, 1837. Shortly after this time, his father, a Presbyterian clergyman, moved to central New York. It was before the days of railroads, and the journey was made by schooner up the Hudson to Albany, and thence by packet on the Erie Canal. Young Grover was pursuing his academic studies when his father's death left him, at sixteen, without a dollar to continue his education. Having made several efforts to earn his living, he borrowed twenty-five dollars and started west to seek his fortune. At Buffalo he entered a law office, began on Blackstone at once, and in 1859 was admitted to the bar. His marked industry, unpretentious courage, and unswerving honesty won him rapid promotion. In 1863 he entered political life, filling, in succession, the offices of assistant district attorney, sheriff, and mayor. Being nominated as the candidate of reform, he was elected, in 1882, as governor of New York by a plurality of 192,854, a vote which gave him a national reputation.

[2] This law replaced an earlier one, by which the office would devolve instead upon the president *pro tempore* of the Senate, and then upon the Speaker of the House of Representatives.

of succession being as follows: the Secretaries of State, Treasury, and War, the Attorney General, the Postmaster General, the Secretary of the Navy, and the Secretary of the Interior. Thus it is made practically certain that the presidency shall never be vacant.

The Electoral Count Act (1887) provides an elaborate set of rules to be followed by Congress in counting the votes of electors for President and Vice President,[1] after each presidential election. This is designed to prevent any future trouble like that occasioned by the disputed returns in the Hayes-Tilden contest (p. 324).

Strikes and Labor Disturbances greatly injured business prosperity. In many instances railroad traffic was suspended, switches were misplaced, trains derailed, and valuable property destroyed. In Chicago (May 4, 1886), during the excitement caused by a strike of 40,000 workmen, the police attempted to scatter a body of anarchists, when a bomb was thrown, resulting in the death of seven policemen and the injury of many others.

Earthquake Shocks, beginning on the evening of August 31, 1886, and continuing at intervals for months, wrought special damage at Charleston, S. C. Many people were killed or wounded by falling masonry; and public and private buildings, venerable churches, and historic edifices were destroyed or irretrievably damaged.

The Statue of Liberty.[2]— The statue of Liberty Enlight-

[1] Each State through its own government is expected to decide who are the persons chosen electors in that State, and its decision, if rendered, is final. But if both houses of Congress, voting separately, reject any elector's vote as not being legally cast, it is thrown out. In case of conflicting returns where the State has failed to decide, only those votes can be counted which are accepted by both houses of Congress; — if the two houses disagree, all the conflicting votes are thrown out.

[2] This statue, the work of the French sculptor Bartholdi, is 151 feet high, and stands on a pedestal of about the same height. The uplifted torch in Liberty's hand is thus about 300 feet above the ground.

ening the World, presented by Frenchmen to this country, and erected on an island in New York harbor, was unveiled in the presence of many distinguished guests (October, 1886).

THE STATUE OF LIBERTY.

Interstate Commerce Act (1887). — The vast increase in the extent and use of railroads made the great railroad companies very influential in many branches of business. Favored shippers were given special low rates, enabling them to crush their competitors. In many cases a lower rate was charged for long distances than for intermediate short distances. Under the clause of the Constitution which gives Congress power to regulate commerce between the States, an Interstate Commerce Law was enacted which forbade these practices on all railroads operating in two or more States, and established an Interstate Commerce Commission, with power to make such railroads treat all patrons fairly.

Political Parties. — The question of the tariff (see pp. 201, 202) was once more brought into politics. The Democrats, who advocated a reduction of the duties on imports, renominated Grover Cleveland for President; the Republicans, in favor of protection, nominated Benjamin Harrison of Indiana. Besides these there were several other candidates in the field. Harrison was elected.

HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION (1889–1893) [1]

Domestic Affairs.— *The Johnstown Flood* (May 31, 1889) was caused by the breaking of a reservoir dam during a severe freshet. An immense avalanche of water swept through the Con'emaugh valley, in Pennsylvania, overwhelming the city of Johnstown, destroying more than $10,000,000 in property, and bringing death to many hundreds of people.

The Tariff.— In 1890 the Republican majority in Congress passed the McKinley Act, which raised the average rate of duties.[2]

Pensions.— United States soldiers disabled in the service, and the widows and orphans of soldiers, have long been generously pensioned. Finally (1890) pensions were granted to all soldiers unable to earn a living by manual labor, whether or not their injuries were received in the service. A few years later the pension roll contained

[1] Benjamin Harrison was born at North Bend, Ohio, August 20, 1833; died 1901. His father was John Scott Harrison, farmer; his grandfather, William Henry Harrison, governor, general, and President (see p. 210); and his great-grandfather, Benjamin Harrison, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. Until about the age of fourteen years, Benjamin was educated mainly at home. He then studied for two years at Farmer's College, near Cincinnati, after which he entered Miami University, where he graduated in 1852. Choosing the law as his profession, he was duly admitted to the bar, and established himself in Indianapolis. Upon the breaking out of the Civil War he enlisted in the service of his country, in which he remained till the close of hostilities. Commissioned as colonel of the Seventieth Indiana Volunteers, he was brevetted as brigadier general for ability, energy, and gallantry. He was greatly beloved by his men, who bestowed on him the soubriquet of "Little Ben." In 1881 he was elected to the United States Senate, where he displayed great ability as a statesman.

[2] This act also made provision for reciprocity; that is, for an exchange of favors, in the way of taking off duty on certain foreign goods, with such countries as should by treaty make similar concessions to us.—Just before this (1889, 1890), a Pan-American Congress, or Conference, consisting of representatives from the various republics of America, met in Washington and discussed means of bringing the countries into closer economic relations and preventing strife between them. Though the immediate results of the conference were unimportant, it accomplished much in directing attention to an important problem.

nearly 1,000,000 names, the average pension being about $140 a year.

Ballot Reform.— Since 1888 most of the States have adopted the Australian ballot system, with various modifications. The main object of this widespread reform was to diminish corrupt practices in elections; and this was effected (1) by adopting official ballots printed at public expense, and (2) by enforcing on the voter absolute privacy in preparing his ballot for voting.[1]

Oklahoma.— A part of the Indian Territory, called Oklahoma, was purchased from the Indians and thrown open to settlement (April 22, 1889). In anticipation of this, prospective settlers had encamped on the border, and at the appointed signal began a mad rush for the best locations. Before night Oklahoma had a population of some fifty thousand, towns had sprung up, and even newspapers had been printed. The boundaries of Oklahoma were afterwards extended. It was made a Territory in 1890.

Indian Troubles.— In the autumn of 1890 the Sioux Indians of the Northwest became restive. In December several thousand excited Indians were encamped at Wounded Knee, in South Dakota. An attempt to disarm the warriors resulted in a battle on the 28th, in which 200 were killed, including many Indian women and children; but within twenty days the Indians were all disarmed.

Labor Troubles resulted in increased bitterness of feeling between labor and capital. In the summer of 1892, through disagreement as to wages, a lockout[2] occurred in

[1] The older method of voting, though by ballot, did not secure secrecy to such voters as were exposed to intimidation, nor enforce it against such as wished to sell their votes and show how they voted. Each party provided its own ballots, and a ballot was often kept in sight from the moment it was placed in the voter's hand until it was cast.

[2] In a lockout the employer stops work by discharging his workmen, while in a strike the workmen make the first move. But as the result is the same in either case, all such cessations of work are commonly called strikes.

the great steel foundries near Pittsburg. At Homestead the striking workmen refused to leave the premises, and the employing company hired a force of private detectives to eject them. A riot ensued in which many were killed or wounded. The militia were then summoned, and order was gradually restored. Bloody riots took place also at the mines in Idaho and in Tennessee.

Chinese Exclusion (1892).—The law prohibiting the immigration of Chinese laborers (p. 327) was reënacted for another ten-year period, and was made stricter than before. All Chinamen in the country were obliged to obtain certificates showing their right to be here, or else to leave.

New States admitted — North and South Dakota, Washington, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming (p. 359).

An International Copyright Law was enacted by Congress in 1891, after more than half a century of debate. It affords copyright protection to foreign authors of such nations as secure like protection to Americans.

Political Parties.— The tariff was still the important issue in 1892. The Democrats once more nominated Grover Cleveland for President, and the Republicans nominated Benjamin Harrison. The People's party, which advocated legislation favoring the farmers, nominated James B. Weaver, and the Prohibition party nominated John Bidwell. Cleveland was elected.[1]

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION (1893–1897)

Domestic Affairs.— *The World's Columbian Exposition*, in celebration of the four hundredth anniversary of

[1] The electoral vote was: for Cleveland, 277; Harrison, 145; Weaver, 22. This was the first time since the Civil War that electoral votes went to any party other than the Republican and Democratic.

125
120
115
110
105
100
Longitude
45
40
35
30
25
PACIFIC OCEAN
BRITISH
VANCOUVER I.
WASHINGTON
Seattle
Spokane
Tacoma
OLYMPIA
1889
Astoria
Portland
Columbia R.
OREGON
SALEM
Baker City
Lava Beds
Klamath L.
Sierra Nevada Mts.
Sacramento R.
Reno
Virginia City
NEVADA
CARSON CITY
1864
SACRAMENTO
Oakland
San Francisco
CALIFORNIA
Los Angeles
Colorado R.
Great Falls
Missouri R.
Moscow
IDAHO
Butte
HELENA
1889
MONTANA
Yellowstone R.
Big Horn R.
Mountains
1890
BOISE
Snake R.
Pocatello
WYOMING
1890
Great Salt Lake
Ogden
Laramie
SALT LAKE CITY
UTAH
1896
CHEYENNE
DENVER
COLORADO
Colorado Springs
1876
Pueblo
NEBRASKA
1867
Platte R.
LINC
NORTH DAKOTA
1889
BISMARCK
Missouri R.
SOUTH DAKOTA
1889
PIERRE
Black Hills
Wounded Knee
Prescott
ARIZONA TER.
PHŒNIX
Gila R.
Tucson
SANTA FÉ
NEW MEXICO TER.
Albuquerque
Rio Grande
Pecos R.
Canadian R.
TEXAS
AUSTIN
San Antonio
Colorado R.
Rio Grande
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
LOWER CALIFORNIA
TROPIC OF CANCER
L.L.POATES, ENGR., N.Y.

95
90
85
80
75
70
Winnipeg
Lake of the Woods
Quebec
St. Lawrence R.
Duluth
Superior
L. SUPERIOR
MICHIGAN
L. MICHIGAN
L. HURON
OTTAWA
Burlington
Champlain
L.
MAINE
Bangor
AUGUSTA
Portland
Manchester
CONCORD
MONTPELIER
VT.
N. H.
Minneapolis
ST. PAUL
WISCONSIN
Saginaw
Toronto
ONTARIO
Buffalo
Rochester
ALBANY
Hudson
MASS.
BOSTON
PROVIDENCE
HARTFORD
CONN.
New Haven
MADISON
Grand Rapids
LANSING
Detroit
L. ERIE
NEW YORK
West Point
Newark
TRENTON
New York
Milwaukee
Dubuque
Davenport
Chicago
Fort Wayne
Toledo
Cleveland
PENNSYLVANIA
Johnstown
Lancaster
HARRISBURG
JERSEY
Philadelphia
Middleton
Dover
DES MOINES
COLUMBUS
Wheeling
Pittsburg
Baltimore
OHIO
INDIANAPOLIS
Cincinnati
WEST VIRGINIA
WASHINGTON
ANNAPOLIS
St. Joseph
SPRINGFIELD
CHARLESTON
1863
RICHMOND
Norfolk
FRANKFORT
Evansville
Ohio R.
Louisville
KENTUCKY
JEFFERSON CITY
St. Louis
MISSOURI
RALEIGH
Hatteras
NASHVILLE
Knoxville
NORTH CAROLINA
Charlotte
TENNESSEE
Chattanooga
Wilmington
ARKANSAS
Memphis
SOUTH CAROLINA
COLUMBIA
ATLANTIC
LITTLE ROCK
ATLANTA
Augusta
Charleston
Birmingham
Savannah
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
Shreveport
JACKSON
MONTGOMERY
Vicksburg
Jacksonville
Mobile
Pensacola
TALLAHASSEE
BATON ROUGE
New Orleans
Galveston
Tampa
GULF OF MEXICO
The Everglades
Strait of
BAHAMA ISLANDS
WATLING OR SAN SALVADOR I.
Key West
Florida
HAVANA
CUBA
THE STATES
OF
THE UNION
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
95
from
90
Greenwich
85
75
40
35
30
25

the discovery of America, having been dedicated in October, 1892, was opened to the public in May, 1893. This great industrial exhibition was created by act of Congress, and was held in Chicago. All nations participated. The cost of the exposition was in excess of $30,000,000, and

WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

during the six months of its continuance the turnstiles recorded over 20,000,000 paid admissions.

Extra Session of Congress (1893).—Various causes having brought on a monetary crisis, President Cleveland called a special session of Congress. The relative values of gold and silver had so changed by this time that the metal in a silver dollar was worth only about half as much as a gold dollar. Many people believed that there were too many silver dollars in circulation, too many for the government to keep at their face value. Finally Congress repealed the law of 1890 requiring the government to buy 4,500,000 ounces of silver each month.

Reduction of the Tariff (1894).— At the next regular session of Congress the average tariff was slightly reduced by the Gorman-Wilson Act.

Repeal of the Force Bill.— For many years presidential and congressional elections in the Southern States had been placed, in certain conditions, under the supervision of men appointed by federal authority, the aim being to protect the negro vote. The law providing for this supervision was now repealed (1894), leaving the elections in each State to be controlled by State authority, as they were before the Civil War.

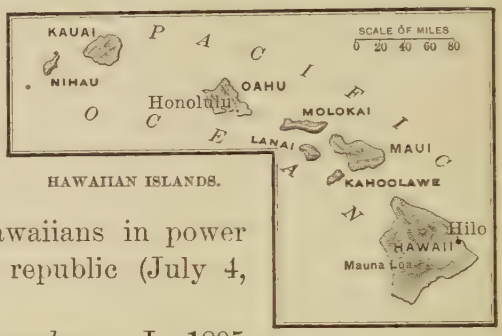
A Great Railroad Strike (1894) was occasioned by trouble between the Pullman Car Company and its employees. The American Railroad Union having taken up the quarrel (June 26), more railway employees quit work than in any other strike in history, and for some weeks little business was done on the Western railroads. The focus of the strike was Chicago, the greatest railroad center in the world. Some property having been destroyed, and the postal service interfered with, President Cleveland sent troops there to restore order, against the protest of the governor of Illinois, who denied the right of the federal government to interfere except on request of the State. Then, the leaders of the strike having been arrested for disobeying injunctions of the federal courts, the strike collapsed.

New State admitted— Utah (p. 360).

Foreign Affairs. — *Hawaii* (hah wī'ee). — In January, 1893, the queen of the Hawaiian Islands[1] had been

[1] When discovered, the Hawaiian Islands were governed by a number of independent chiefs. But about the beginning of the nineteenth century Kamehameha (kah-mā hah'mā hah) succeeded in extending his rule over the whole group, and founded a kingdom which lasted nearly a hundred years. At his death the ancient worship of idols and many cruel heathenish practices were overthrown. In 1820 the first mission-

deposed; the Hawaiian revolutionists applied for annexation to our country. President Cleveland believed that the revolutionists had been improperly aided by the American minister, and he tried to have the queen restored; but the Hawaiians in power made the islands a republic (July 4, 1894).



HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

The Venezuelan Boundary.— In 1895 a boundary dispute between Venezuela and British Guiana seemed likely to lead to war. Cleveland, following the Monroe Doctrine (p. 200), protested to Great Britain against any seizure of Venezuelan territory. He appointed a commission to ascertain the true boundary; but before it could report, Great Britain and Venezuela signed a treaty of arbitration (February 2, 1897), and the dispute was amicably adjusted.

Political Parties.— The leading candidates for President and Vice President in 1896 were: Republican, in favor of the existing gold monetary standard, William McKinley of Ohio, and Garret A. Hobart of New Jersey; Democratic, in favor of free coinage of silver, William J. Bryan of Nebraska, and Arthur Sewall of Maine; People's party, William J. Bryan, and Thomas E. Watson of Georgia; National Democratic (gold standard), John M. Palmer of Illinois, and Simon B. Buckner of Kentucky. The Republican nominees were elected.

aries arrived from the United States, and thereafter the people made rapid progress in education and the arts of civilization. A considerable number of foreigners, of various nationalities, also came to the islands to live; and in 1840 the king promulgated a constitution.

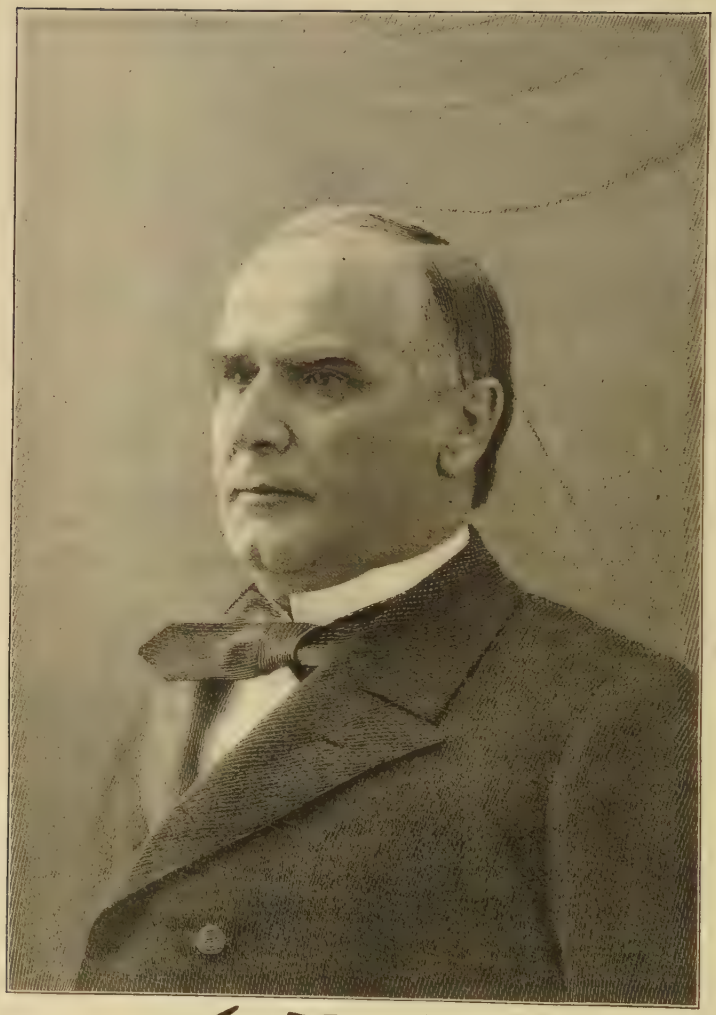
McKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION (1897–1901)[1]

Domestic Affairs. — *The Tariff.* — An extra session of Congress was called to meet on March 15, 1897, for the purpose of increasing the revenue. A tariff bill for revenue and protection, similar in many respects to the McKinley Bill of 1890, was introduced by the Republicans, and was made a law July 24, 1897.

During the war with Spain Congress passed an act still further increasing the revenue (p. 346).

Gold Standard Act. — In March, 1900, an act was passed expressly adopting the gold standard of money, and making it the duty of the treasury to maintain all our money on a parity with gold. Ever since 1879 (p. 325) this parity had been maintained, but it was partly through the exercise of discretion by the Secretary of the Treasury, who might, within the letter of the law, have paid United States notes and bonds in silver coin instead of in gold. The act of 1900, however, left the secretary no discretion in regard to United States notes; at the same time it provided for refunding most of the bonded debt by the issue of thirty-year bonds payable in gold and bearing two per cent interest. It also allowed national banks to issue banknotes up to the face value of United States bonds deposited by them in the treasury. Previously the banks had been allowed to issue banknotes up to only ninety per cent of the value of the bonds deposited.

[1] William McKinley was born at Niles, Trumbull County, Ohio, in 1843; died 1901. After a course of study in the village academy at Poland, Ohio, he entered the junior class of Allegheny College in 1860; but on the outbreak of the Civil War he enlisted as a private in the Union army. Through bravery and meritorious service he rose to the rank of captain and brevet major. When peace was restored he studied law, and in 1867 began practice in Canton, Ohio, which was thereafter his home. His eloquence and ability in debate soon secured him political prominence, and for seven consecutive



The Galveston Disaster.— Galveston, the chief seaport of Texas, lies on a low island between the Gulf of Mexico and Galveston Bay. Driven by hurricane winds, the waters rose until the entire city was flooded, while great waves swept over the island, demolishing many houses and stores and drowning thousands of people (September 8 and 9, 1900). Relief for the survivors poured in from all quarters, and the undaunted citizens made haste to restore their city.

THE WAR WITH SPAIN (1898)

Causes. — Cuba, the "Pearl of the Antilles," though abounding in natural resources, was not prosperous under the rule of Spain, and from time to time the Cuban people, both black and white, rebelled against the government imposed on them. The last of these rebellions[1] began in February, 1895, and though Spain sent in all 200,000 soldiers to Cuba, she failed in over three years to restore order. The rebels were greatly aided by men, rifles, cannon, ammunition, and other supplies carried to them by ships from our country; but our government stopped such expeditions whenever it could.

The insurgents soon formed the Republic of Cuba, but

terms (1877–91) he was sent as a Republican representative to Congress, though once unseated by his political opponents. He was especially noted as an advocate of a protective tariff, and as he was chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, his name was given to the tariff act of 1890 (p. 331). In the fall of 1890 he was defeated for Congress on account of changes in the make-up of his district; but the next year he was chosen governor of Ohio, and in 1893 was reëlected by an increased majority. At the hour of his funeral, throughout the country all traffic was stopped for a few minutes; even steamers and railroad trains came to a standstill wherever they happened to be. No such tribute had ever before been paid to any one's memory.

[1] The most serious of the earlier rebellions began in 1868 and lasted ten years, during which time Spain sent 80,000 soldiers to Cuba. The last of the rebels laid down their arms after receiving promises of reform in the Cuban government which were not kept.

sought in vain to secure recognition from the United States. Our government, however, warned Spain that the struggle could not go on indefinitely without intervention on our part. Our citizens had millions of dollars invested in Cuban property, and an important commerce which was being rapidly ruined through the devastation of the island. Moreover, our people were shocked at the suffering of the *reconcentrados* — Cubans who had been compelled by the Spanish general, Weyler, under pain of death, to leave their country homes and concentrate at the large towns, where they were hemmed in by the garrisons and left to starve. Tens of thousands of them thus

THE WRECK OF THE MAINE.

miserably perished, though some supplies were sent to them from the United States.

On the night of February 15, 1898, our battleship *Maine* was blown up in the harbor of Havana, with the loss of 260 of her crew. From that moment the hope of a peaceable settlement of the Cuban problem rapidly waned, and both nations prepared for war. Congress passed a resolution demanding the withdrawal of Spain from Cuba, and authorizing the use of our army and navy

to compel her, if necessary (April 19). The President, having signed this, sent a copy of it as an ultimatum to Spain (April 21), and war began on the same day.

Fighting in the Philippines.— Although the avowed object of the struggle was merely to compel Spain to abandon Cuba, the first blow, and also the last, were struck

BATTLE OF MANILA BAY.

at her on the opposite side of the globe, in her colony of the Philippine Islands (map, p. 351). There, in Manila Bay, Commodore George Dewey's squadron completely destroyed a Spanish fleet, killing and wounding over 600 men, while not a ship on our side was lost, and only 7 men were wounded (May 1).[1] And there the city of Manila was captured through the joint operations of Dewey's ships and of a United States army that had been transported

[1] For this brilliant victory Dewey received the thanks of Congress, and was promoted rear admiral and afterwards admiral.

across the Pacific, commanded by General Wesley Merritt (August 13). This battle was fought, as we shall see, one day after the cessation of hostilities had been ordered, but before news of it had arrived at the Philippines.

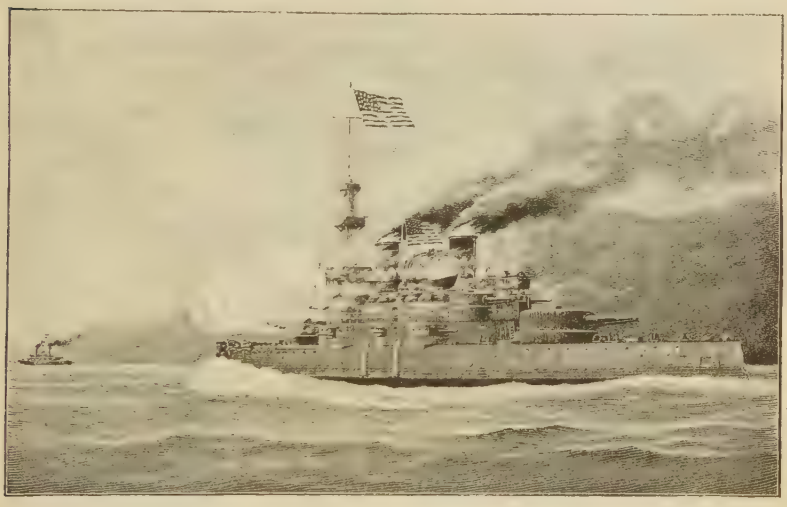
Fighting in the West Indies.— The other battles of this war were fought in the West Indies. Throughout the struggle our navy maintained a blockade of Havana and the western end of Cuba, and this led to the capture of a considerable number of Spanish vessels. But the decisive conflicts occurred near the well fortified harbor of Santiago (sahn te ah′-go), in the eastern end of the island. Here, in the latter part of May, a Spanish squadron commanded by Admiral Cervera (thĕr vā′rah) took refuge, and was blockaded by our ships under Commodore Winfield S. Schley (slī), and later also by those under Rear Admiral William T. Sampson, who had the command of the entire fleet. In an attempt to make the blockade complete, the collier *Merrimac* was sunk in the narrow channel leading to the harbor. This feat was performed, amid a storm of shot and shell from the forts, by Lieutenant Richmond P. Hobson and a crew of seven, who were taken prisoners and afterwards exchanged.

CUBA AND PORTO RICO.

Battles near Santiago.—An army of about 18,000 men, under General William R. Shafter, was now landed on the coast, not far from Santiago. After severe fighting, it took and held the outer defenses of the city, including the earthworks of El Caney (cah nā′) and San Juan (sahn

hoo ahn') Hill (July 1, 2).[1] Our total loss in this campaign was about 250 killed and 1400 wounded and missing; the Spanish loss was believed to be greater.

Battle of July 3.—As the city seemed sure to fall, Cervera's six ships sailed out of the harbor past the *Merrimac* and



THE OREGON AT SANTIAGO.

tried to escape; but they were at once attacked by the blockading fleet, and were soon sunk or stranded, shattered wrecks, on the shore of Cuba.[2] Besides the many killed, about 1800 Spanish sailors were taken prisoners; of our men only one was killed and a few wounded.

[1] In this action the "Rough Riders" played an important part. They were a regiment of volunteer cavalry recruited largely from Western cowboys and Eastern athletes. They were led up San Juan Hill by Colonel Theodore Roosevelt.

[2] When the Spanish fleet appeared, it happened that Admiral Sampson, with his flagship the *New York*, was several miles to the east, on his way to a conference with General Shafter. Schley's flagship, the *Brooklyn*, was at the west end of the blockading fleet, and as the Spaniards tried to escape by sailing west, the *Brooklyn* was in the thickest of the fight. Another ship that distinguished herself was the *Oregon*. Though she was a heavy battleship, and had recently made the long trip from San Francisco around South America, she steamed as swiftly as a cruiser, and helped to capture the last and swiftest of the Spanish ships.

Surrender of Santiago (July 17).— Rather than incur an assault on Santiago, the Spanish surrendered the city, together with the eastern end of Cuba and an army of about 22,000 men, which we had to transport to Spain. A few days later General Nelson A. Miles set off with an army of about 20,000 to seize Porto Rico. He had occupied a large part of the island without much opposition, when hostilities came to an end.

Peace.— On August 12, 1898, a protocol was signed at Washington, providing for the cessation of hostilities and a meeting, at Paris, of commissioners to negotiate a formal treaty of peace. The protocol also provided for the abandonment of Cuba by Spain, and the cession of Porto Rico and one of the Ladrones to the United States. The disposition of the Philippines was left to be decided in the final treaty of peace; Manila in the meanwhile was to be occupied by the United States.

The treaty was completed and signed at Paris, December 10, 1898, and within a few months was ratified by both governments (by the United States February 6, 1899). The most important additions to the terms contained in the protocol were the cession of the Philippines by Spain, the payment of $20,000,000 to Spain, and the naming of Guäm as the member of the Ladrone group referred to in the protocol.

The Cost of the War was met chiefly by the sale of bonds to the extent of $200,000,000. Besides this increase in the public debt, Congress imposed a number of additional taxes, including many stamp taxes, an inheritance tax, and a duty on tea.

Two hundred thousand volunteers were enlisted at the beginning of the war, and many of them saw service beside the regulars in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines.

Insular Affairs.— *The Annexation of the Hawaiian Islands* was unexpectedly hastened during the progress of the war with Spain. Even before the protocol was signed, the war operations in Asiatic waters, and the possibility

NATIVE HOUSE, HAWAII.

that the Philippines might fall into the possession of the United States, made clear the importance of the Hawaiian Islands as a naval and military station. The joint resolution of annexation was passed by Congress July 6, 1898, and its terms were promptly ratified by the Hawaiian government. Two years later Congress made the islands a Territory, and extended the Constitution and laws of the United States over them, so that they form part of our country (April 27, 1900).

Tutuila (too too ee'lah) and some small neighboring islands were made the property of the United States by treaty with Germany and Great Britain (1900). Tutuila

has the best harbor in the Samoan islands, and is an important naval and coaling station.[1]

Wake is a small, rocky island in the direct route from Hawaii to Hongkong. The United States took possession of it (February, 1899), in anticipation of its value as a station for any cable line that might be laid to connect with the Philippines.

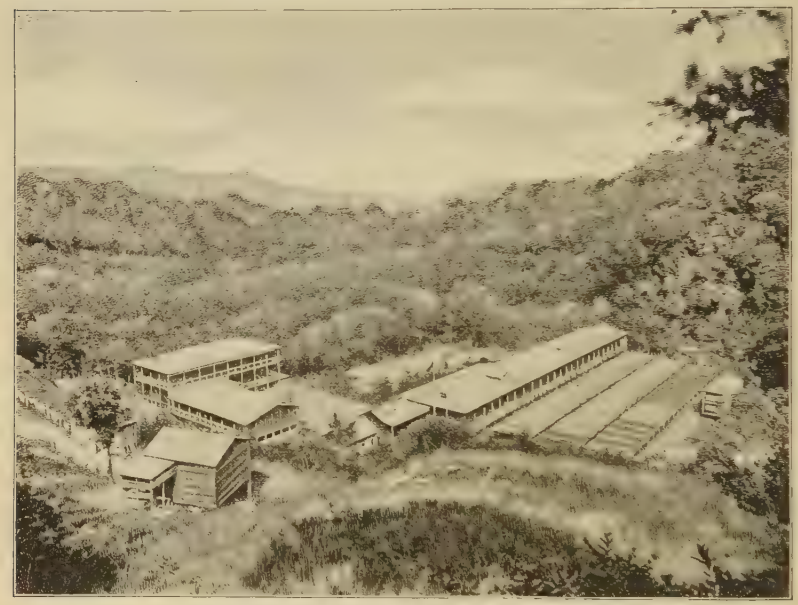
Porto Rico belonged to the United States a year and a half before Congress provided a civil government for it.[2] A new question had come in with the new island possessions: Were they parts of the United States, and as such under the Constitution? or were they merely colonial possessions and outside the force of the Constitution? After a long and vigorous contest, Congress passed an act (April 11, 1900) providing for a government to be exercised by a governor and an executive council appointed by the President; a house of delegates elected by the people of the island; and a supreme court appointed by the President. It also levied a temporary tariff on imports from Porto Rico into the United States, and on imports from the United States into Porto Rico; and this

[1] In 1889 the fourteen islands constituting the Samoan group were by agreement taken under the joint protection of Great Britain, Germany, and the United States. During the ten years following, troubles growing out of the rivalry of chiefs for the kingship of the islands led to vexatious differences between Great Britain and the United States on one side, and Germany on the other. In April, 1899, the three powers appointed a commission to settle the difficulties. The result was a treaty by which Great Britain gave up her interest, and the islands were divided between Germany and the United States.

[2] The occurrence of a destructive hurricane (August, 1899) compelled many of the people to depend on the bounty of the United States, which in a few months distributed to them over 30,000,000 pounds of food. The destruction of their crops only increased the impatience with which the Porto Ricans waited for Congress to settle their new relations and restore their industries. Their separation from Spain had cut off a free market for their main products, which now entered our country under tariff rules. As a measure of temporary relief, a bill was passed (March, 1900) appropriating the duties collected hitherto on Porto Rican imports, amounting to upward of $2,000,000, for the benefit of the island.

THE UNITED STATES
AND ITS
OUTLYING POSSESSIONS
ARCTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
UNITED STATES
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
CANADA
GREENLAND
BRAZIL
ARGENTINA
AUSTRALIA
SIBERIA
PHILIPPINE IS. (U.S.)
GUAM (U.S.)
WAKE I. (U.S.)
HAWAIIAN IS. (U.S.)
PORTO RICO (U.S.)
TUTUILA (U.S.)
Longitude 150 West 120 from 90 Greenwich 60 30 0 Longitude 60 East 90
L.L. POATES, ENGR., N.Y.

provision, implying that Porto Rico is not part of the United States, was declared constitutional by the Supreme Court.[1] This tariff, however, came to an end in July,



COFFEE PLANTATION, PORTO RICO.

1901, when the local taxation of Porto Rico was found to be sufficient for its expenses.

The Philippines.— Unlike Porto Rico and Guam, which welcomed American authority, some of the Philippines objected to any sovereignty foreign to themselves. Many of the Filipinos had fought bravely against the tyranny of Spain, and now, under the lead of Aguinaldo (ag e-

[1] It was decided that the general laws of the United States, and some of the provisions of the Constitution, do not apply to new territory until Congress extends them over it. Porto Rico, the Philippines, Guam, and Tutuila are not parts of the United States, and their citizens are not citizens of the United States. But they are possessions of our country, under the control of Congress, and hence are not foreign. They are practically colonies.

nahl'do), they looked for absolute independence for themselves and their neighbors.

The war in the Philippines arose when there was no active sovereignty over the islands, during the long interval between the signing and the confirmation of the Paris treaty. General Merritt was succeeded by General Elwell S. Otis, who occupied Manila, while the insurgent Filipinos controlled most of the remainder of Luzon. On February 4, 1899, the Filipinos began the war by attacking the defenses of Manila; they were repulsed, with a loss of 2000 men, and General Otis then directed an aggressive campaign. Malo'los, the Filipino capital, was captured (March 31); the army of the Filipinos was broken up; and within two years most of the insurgents surrendered.

THE PHILIPPINES.

In 1899 a commission appointed by the President visited the Philippines and reported upon their condition. Early in 1900 the President appointed a new commission of five members to control and take charge of all matters connected with the construction of a government, and to appoint all necessary civil officers. This commission, of which Judge William H. Taft of Cincinnati was made president, entered upon its duties in the Philippines in June. Schools were encouraged, local governments were established, and the Filipinos were given a large share of self-government.

Cuba.— On the evacuation of Cuba by Spain, the United States assumed control temporarily. Such thorough sanitary reforms were brought about that the island was almost entirely freed from yellow fever. The city governments were soon turned over to the Cubans; and delegates were elected to a convention which adopted a constitution for the government of Cuba as an independent nation under the protection of the United States.

Foreign Affairs.— *Chinese Disorders.*— In the summer of 1900 there was in China a native uprising against foreigners. The Chinese government encouraged the movement. Finally the European powers, Japan, and the United States, all sent troops to Pekin to rescue the ambassadors and other foreigners there and to restore order.

ALASKA BOUNDARY.

Alaska Boundary. — After the discovery of rich gold deposits in the Klondike region in Canada (1896), many miners crossed the southern part of Alaska on their way thither, and many supplies were sent by the same route. This gave importance to a dispute over the Alaska boundary. Our claim places this boundary inland so as to include all the seaports on this part of the Pacific coast; the Canadian claim would bring several of them into Canada.

Political Parties.— The leading candidates for President and Vice President in 1900 were: Republican, William McKinley (renominated), and Theodore Roosevelt of New York; Democratic and People's party, William Jennings Bryan of Nebraska, and Adlai E. Stevenson of Illinois. Nominations were also made by the Prohibition party, the independent (anti-fusion) branch of the People's party, and other parties. The Republican candidates were elected.

Assassination of McKinley.— At the Pan-American Exposition in Buffalo, President McKinley held a public reception, and shook hands with the people as they passed him in line. An anarchist, cunningly hiding a revolver in what seemed to be a bandaged hand, advanced in his turn, and at the President's greeting shot him twice (September 6, 1901). McKinley died of his wounds (September 14), and on that day Vice-President Roosevelt took the oath of office as President (p. 369).

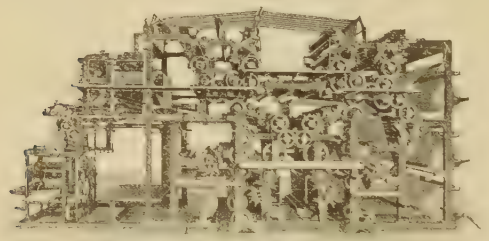
INDUSTRIAL HISTORY

During the Civil War, as we have seen, a vast amount of property was destroyed,— millions and millions of dollars' worth,— and the supreme energies of the nation were for four years directed in military channels. Hence there was a great disturbance, a great check in many kinds of industry. But within a short time after the war the country regained its former prosperity, and it then continued to progress so rapidly that by the end of the century it stood first among the countries of the earth in wealth and in the amount and value of its industrial products.

Between 1860 and 1900 the population of the country

more than doubled. The number of immigrants who came each year varied from less than 100,000 to nearly 800,000. Cities grew in population much more rapidly than country districts; in 1900 a third of all the people lived in cities or large towns. Also, the productive capacity of nearly every workingman was increased by many inventions of labor-saving machines and new, economical methods of work.

The patents issued by the United States between 1860 and 1900 numbered over 600,000. They include improvements on almost every implement of peace or war, from the cannon to the telescope.[1] Among the notable American inventions made or perfected since 1860 are vestibule and sleeping cars, automatic car couplers, the typewriter, typesetting machines, the telephone, and electric lights.[2] Near the end of the century, machines were introduced even for recording votes in elections — a method that is quicker and more accurate than voting by ballot.



MODERN PRINTING PRESS.

[1] The printing press of a century ago would, at a great expense of labor, print, on one side, about 250 sheets an hour. A new steam "perfecting press" will in the same time turn out 96,000 four-page newspapers folded, pasted, and printed on both sides of each page.

[2] Just as the steam engine brought about the most notable changes in industrial methods before the Civil War, so new uses of electricity are the most striking features of mechanical development in the later period. Besides the telephone and electric lights there were now introduced the dynamo and the electric motor — a means by which water power or steam power is transformed into electricity and then, after being carried to a distance by wire or stored up in storage batteries, is changed back into motive power with very little loss. In this way, for instance, part of the vast power of Niagara Falls is used in Buffalo and other cities. Not only are trolley cars, automobiles, etc., driven by electric power, but also machines used in hundreds of kinds of work, from running elevators to dressing meat.

This period of our industrial history is characterized by the multiplication and growth of large corporations. In many cases the property or the stock of competing corporations has been bought by a single corporation, which thus seeks to gain a monopoly of the business, and is commonly called a "trust." Many kinds of manufacture have come under the control of trusts, each with a capital stock of millions of dollars. On the other hand, trades unions have grown and developed until they include a controlling proportion of the skilled workingmen of the country. Disagreements between employers and trades unions have led to many thousands of strikes, fewer successful than unsuccessful; but on the whole wages have gradually become higher and hours of labor fewer.

Agriculture.— Since 1860 many new agricultural implements and machines have been invented; the rotation of crops and the use of fertilizers have been reduced to an exact science; and the cultivated area has been more than doubled. The cotton crop has increased to more than 10,000,000 bales a year, and the corn, wheat, tobacco, and other crops are far larger than before. This period is also marked by the great development of truck farming (the raising of fruits and vegetables for the supply of city markets); by the production of great quantities of vegetables and fruits preserved in canning factories (an industry introduced during this period); and by the beginnings of beet cultivation on a large scale for the supply of sugar factories (since about 1890). The new Northwest has become important in agriculture, and in many of the Western States vast areas formerly arid have been made highly productive by irrigation.

Herding.— The drier parts of the country near the Rocky Mountains have become a great pasture for millions of

cattle and sheep. The cattle, sheep, swine, and other domestic animals kept in all parts of the country are greater in value than those of any other nation.

During this period the making of cheese, and later of butter, which was for a long time solely a household manufacture, has in large part become the work of factories; the "condensing" of milk has become an important industry; and there has been developed an elaborate system for carrying fresh milk into large cities every day by railroads — in some cases over a hundred miles.

The work of slaughtering animals and preserving and distributing meats has been gathered largely into the hands of a few great corporations. Such improvements have been made in this industry — especially in the manner of keeping meat fresh by refrigeration — that we export vast quantities of fresh meats as well as of live cattle.

Lumbering.— To supply the greatly increased needs of our rapidly growing manufactures, lumbering has been carried on so extensively as to threaten the destruction of our remaining forests. Among the new demands made upon them, is that for vast quantities of wood pulp from which the cheaper grades of paper are now made. On the other hand, wood now supplies a much smaller share of the fuel burned in our country than in former periods.

Mining.— In this period the main regions of iron mining came to be the southern and western shores of Lake Superior (about 1880) and the southern Appalachian Mountains. Rich copper mines were opened in Montana and Arizona, coal mines in many States, new gold mines in Colorado, Alaska, and elsewhere, and rich silver mines in the Rocky Mountain region.

The sinking of wells for petroleum, begun just before the Civil War, grew rapidly to a vast industry in western

Pennsylvania and the neighboring States, and about the end of the century in California and Texas also. The refining of petroleum (producing gasoline, kerosene, vaseline, and many other things) took rank among our most important manufactures, meeting the home demand and furnishing large quantities for export. Natural gas, obtained, like petroleum, from wells drilled deep into the earth, supplied light and fuel for many towns and cities.

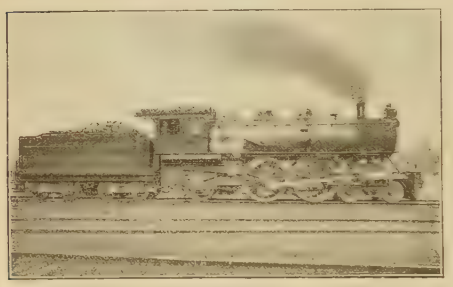
Manufactures.— Our manufactures steadily increased, so that in 1900 they amounted to $13,000,000,000, about seven times the output of 1860. Not only did they meet a larger and larger share of the increasing home demand, but the amount of manufactures exported grew year by year until it formed nearly a third of the total exports.

About a generation after the Civil War, many cotton mills, tobacco factories, and other manufactories were established in the South, which had theretofore been almost wholly an agricultural section.

Many new articles were manufactured, and great improvements in methods and processes were made in every branch of manufacture — improvements which in many cases lowered the price to the consumer besides increasing the manufacturer's profits and the laborers' wages. These are typical of many: From cotton seed, long considered almost worthless, was made an oil something like linseed oil and olive oil. Soon after the invention of bicycles more of them were manufactured in this country than in any other, as is the case also with many other machines. Ten thousand inventions were patented in the details of making boots and shoes, and so many different machines are actually used that a single pair of shoes may be the work of twenty men, each doing a small part. In flour mills, rollers took the place of the older mill-

stones. Steel was made largely from pig iron and became cheaper than the wrought iron from which it was formerly made; and it came to be used as the chief material of thousands of things, from nails and tin cans to ships and the framework of thirty-story buildings. The production of cotton and woolen goods grew steadily in importance. The manufacture of silk grew to such proportions as to supply most of the home demand, though the United States consumes more silk goods than any other country.

Transportation.— By the year 1900 the number of miles of railroad in the United States was increased to more than 190,000 — more than in all other countries combined. Transportation by canal became of comparatively little importance, but that by large ships on the oceans and the Great Lakes increased vastly in amount. So much iron ore and grain were shipped down the Great Lakes from points on Lake Superior that more freight passed through the Soo Canal (on St. Marys River) than through the Suez Canal.



MODERN LOCOMOTIVE.

The telegraph wires in the country increased to more than a million miles, and the telephone wires to a much greater length.

Commerce.— What has just been said of transportation is enough to indicate the vast amount of our domestic commerce — which is far greater than our foreign commerce. Yet the foreign trade of the United States

has grown to be over $2,000,000,000 a year. The chief exports are cotton, iron and steel, pork and beef, wheat and flour, corn, petroleum products, copper manufactures, lumber and articles of wood; our chief imports, sugar, hides, chemicals, coffee, raw silk and silk goods, cotton goods, and rubber.

THE NEW YORK, A MODERN STEAMSHIP.

Nearly all the American shipping engaged in the foreign trade at the time of the Civil War was either destroyed by Confederate cruisers or sold to foreigners to avoid destruction. Since then it has been only in part replaced by modern ships, though their number is increasing; and most of our imports and exports are carried in foreign vessels.

NEW STATES (1865–1896)

Nebraska, the thirty-seventh State, was admitted to the Union March 1, 1867. The Territory of Nebraska was organized in 1854 (p. 225). At first it included all of the Louisiana purchase north of Kansas and west of the Missouri and White Earth rivers; the present north limit was fixed in 1861 and the west limit in 1863.

Colorado was admitted as a State August 1, 1876. Congress decided to admit it March 3, 1875, and its constitution was ratified by its people July 1, 1876. Its territory came partly from the Louisiana purchase and partly from Mexico. It was organized as a Territory in 1861, with its present boundaries. The first settlement was Denver.

North Dakota and *South Dakota* were admitted November 2, 1889. They had previously formed the Territory of Dakota, which was organized in 1861. *Montana* entered the Union November 8, 1889, and *Washington* November 11 of the same year. In 1890 *Idaho* (July 3) and *Wyoming* (July 10) were admitted. This group of six States was traversed by the Lewis and Clark expedition in 1804–06 (p. 178), but their rapid settlement did not take place till after the Civil War. Since the building of the great transcontinental railroads their growth has been remarkable. The Dakotas and most of Montana and Wyoming are from the Louisiana purchase; Washington, Idaho, and

parts of Montana and Wyoming are from the Oregon country, and part of Wyoming is from Mexico. Washington Territory, organized in 1853, had the limits shown on page 252 from 1859 till the formation of Idaho Territory in 1863. The Territory of Idaho at first included also Montana and nearly all of Wyoming; but in 1864 Montana was made a separate Territory and most of Wyoming was added temporarily to Dakota. The Territory of Wyoming was organized in 1868.

Utah, the forty-fifth State, was admitted to the Union January 4, 1896. The Mormons made their first settlement there (p. 213) when Utah was part of Mexico. They rapidly increased in numbers, and for a time were inclined to oppose the federal authority. Congress organized the Territory of Utah in 1850 (pp. 226, 252), and later made laws designed to break up the practice of polygamy there. Utah asked admission to the Union, but this was denied until after the Mormon Church had given up polygamy and the people of Utah had adopted a constitution forever prohibiting it.

PROGRESS IN CIVILIZATION

Having traced the history of our country down to the end of the nineteenth century, let us glance back and note the successive steps in its growth.

Territorial Development (pp. 361, 349).— The treaty with Great Britain (September 3, 1783) fixed the boundaries of the United States as the Atlantic Ocean, the Great Lakes, the Mississippi River, and the north line of Florida.

Louisiana was purchased of France in 1803 (pp. 176, 178). Florida was purchased of Spain (p. 200) by the treaty of 1819.[1] This treaty also ended a dispute over a strip of coast about fifty miles wide, lying between Florida and the Mississippi River, which was considered by Spain as a part of Florida, but had been seized by the United States (1812, 1813) as part of the Louisiana purchase.[2] Texas was annexed in 1845 (pp. 214, 246). The cession of 1848

[1] The date usually given to a treaty is the date of the instrument itself — the date when it is first signed by the agents of the two nations. But the treaty is not binding till it is ratified by the proper home authority in each government. This treaty with Spain, for instance, was signed February 22, 1819, was ratified by the king of Spain October 24, 1820, and by the United States Senate February 19, 1821.

[2] Part of this strip was added to the State of Louisiana in 1812, a few days after the admission of that State; the rest forms parts of Mississippi and Alabama.

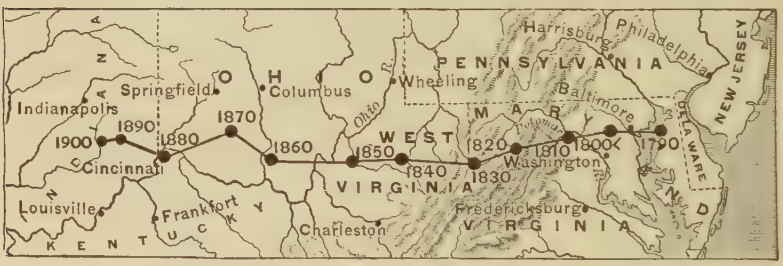
THE OREGON COUNTRY
Offered by the United States and Conceded by Spain, 1819; and by Great Britain, 1846
OREGON
MEXICAN CESSION
1848
CALIFORNIA
NEVADA
UTAH
ARIZONA
NEW MEXICO
GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
TEXAS ANNEXED 1845
LOUISIANA
1803
ORIGINAL TERRITORY
1783
DOMINION OF CANADA
Lake of the Woods
L. Winnipeg
L. Manitoba
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
MINNESOTA
WISCONSIN
MICHIGAN
NEW YORK
MAINE
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
RHODE ISLAND
CONN.
NEW JERSEY
PENNSYLVANIA
DELAWARE
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
WEST VIRGINIA
OHIO
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
ALABAMA
MISSISSIPPI
ARKANSAS
MISSOURI
IOWA
NEBRASKA
KANSAS
OKLAHOMA
NORTH DAKOTA
SOUTH DAKOTA
MONTANA
WYOMING
COLORADO
Minneapolis
Chicago
Milwaukee
Detroit
Cleveland
Buffalo
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Washington
Cincinnati
Louisville
St. Louis
Omaha
Kansas City
Denver
Salt Lake City
Great Salt Lake
San Francisco
Portland
Santa Fe
Atlanta
New Orleans
Cheasapeake Bay
C. Hatteras
St. Marys R.
Purchased from Spain 1819
FLORIDA
BAHAMA ISLANDS
Gulf of California
GULF OF MEXICO
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
TERRITORIAL DEVELOPEMENT OF THE UNITED STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude West from Greenwich
125 120 115 110 105 100 95 90 85 80 75 70
45 40 35 30 25

(p. 220), giving the United States an immense territory, was a forced purchase, resulting from our successful war with Mexico. The cession of 1853 was secured by peaceful means (p. 228). Alaska was purchased in 1867. In 1898–1900 we acquired several island possessions, some peaceably and some through the war with Spain (pp. 346–348).

In 1790 the area of the republic was about 800,000 square miles.[1] It is now nearly 4,000,000 square miles.

The Population.—In 1800, Portland, Me., Providence, R. I., and Richmond, Va., were only small towns. Lancaster, Pa., was the largest inland place. St. Louis, New Orleans, and Mobile were then in foreign territory. Chicago was for years a mere trading station, surrounded by the wigwams of savages.

The population of the entire United States at the time of the first census was less than 4,000,000. The census of



MOVEMENT OF THE CENTER OF POPULATION.

1900 showed over 75,000,000. The center of population in 1790 was 23 miles east of Baltimore; in 1900 it had moved westward to a point near Columbus, in southeastern Indiana. In 1790 there were only 6 cities having a pop-

[1] Less than half of this area was then occupied. Most of our fine farms, and the sites of many large cities, were then "wild lands." The small value placed upon them may be seen from the fact that in 1791 the State of New York sold 5,500,000 acres at an average price of eighteen cents an acre.

ulation of over 8000; in 1900 there were 545. The largest city in 1790 was New York, with 33,000 inhabitants; in 1900 New York had over 3,300,000.

The Post Offices in 1790 numbered 75. Between New York and Philadelphia there were only five mails a week, and it required two days for a letter to go this short distance.[1] They were generally carried throughout the country by men on horseback, the saddle-bags easily holding the scanty number of letters and papers then sent. Mails were forwarded between New York and Boston three times a week in summer, and twice in winter. In remote places the mail was allowed to accumulate until enough was secured to pay the cost of transmission. It was a favored rural village that had a weekly mail. The time of its arrival was locally known as the "post day," and when the postman came he found a crowd assembled to receive the few letters he brought, and to hear the newspaper read by the minister or landlord.

In 1900 we had over 75,000 post offices. Not only were the mails frequent between post offices, but mail matter was carried to people's homes and offices in all large cities. In some country districts, also, a beginning was being made in the great rural free delivery system.

Education.— The idea of popular education was brought to the New World by our forefathers. Even in the wilderness, while the wolf prowled about the log house, and

[1] The tedious mode of travel in the early days is well illustrated in the following incident: In 1824–25 an effort was made in Congress to admit Oregon. Mr. Dickinson of New Jersey declared that "the project of a State upon the Pacific was an absurdity. The distance that a member of Congress from Oregon would be obliged to travel in coming to the seat of government and returning home would be 9200 miles. If he should travel thirty miles per day, it would require 306 days; allowing for Sundays, forty-four, it would amount to 350 days. This would leave the member a fortnight to rest at Washington before he commenced his journey home."

the cry of the wild cat was still heard, the school and even the college were established.[1]

A part of the public lands of the United States has, from the beginning, been set aside for purposes of education. The ordinance of 1787 for the government of the Northwest Territory (p. 163) devoted "section sixteen of every township" for maintaining public schools, and, in making this generous provision, stipulated that "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." In 1848, when Oregon was organized as a Territory (p. 247), the "thirty-sixth section" was also set apart for schools; and since then each new State has received both sections for educational purposes. "At various times, also, other lands have been given, so that in all about 140,000,000 acres have been devoted to the States for the support of common schools." So important has been this subject in the minds of our legislators that, in the midst of the Civil War, when the national government was straining every nerve to raise and equip armies to preserve its very existence, Congress took time to consider and pass a bill (1862) granting 30,000 acres of public lands for every senator and representative in Congress, in order to maintain, in

[1] The Revolution left all the institutions of learning paralyzed. But in less than a month after Washington resigned his commission, Governor George Clinton's message to the legislature of New York contained these memorable words: "Perhaps there is scarce any thing more worthy your attention than the revival and encouragement of seminaries of learning, and nothing by which we can more satisfactorily express our gratitude to the Supreme Being for His past favors, since purity and virtue are generally the offspring of an enlightened understanding." The State was poor, and savages occupied a large part of the region west of Albany: yet the legislature rose to the grandeur of the conception, and at once established a Board of Regents to superintend the interests of higher education. Within a month after its organization, this board authorized the "purchase of such a philosophical apparatus for Columbia College as Dr. Franklin, Mr. Adams, and Mr. Jefferson [then representatives at the French court] should advise."

each State, what has since been known as an Agricultural College.

In consequence of these and equally liberal provisions on the part of State governments, aided by the munificent gifts of many persons in private life, the progress of education in the United States has been marvelous. Instead of nine colleges, as in pre-Revolutionary times, we have five hundred, several of which are worth over $10,000,000, and many over $1,000,000. The common school is fostered in every part of the country. The daily free-school bell now calls together, in the States and Territories of the Union, over 15,000,000 children, who are being educated at an annual expense of over $200,000,000.

Literature.— In colonial times there were few American books, and those chiefly upon theology. The earliest theological writer was Cotton Mather; and the greatest was Jonathan Edwards, one of the ablest theologians of all time. Benjamin Franklin, however, by his sensible writings on many subjects, stands forth as one of the leading colonial authors.

During the agitation that finally ended in the separation from the mother country, politics became the universal theme of discussion. The contest was decided by the pen quite as certainly as by the sword. Patrick Henry, Otis, the elder Adams, Franklin, Dickinson, Freneau, Trumbull,[1] and Hopkinson aroused their countrymen, first to attempt, and then to endure, while, at the same time, they sought to enlist in their cause the sympathies of mankind.

After the war had decided the issue, and it came to building up a united nation out of a loose confederation of

[1] Whipple says, "Trumbull's *McFingal* sent the rustic volunteers laughing into the ranks of Washington and Greene."

States, Jay, Hamilton, Madison,[1] Jefferson, John Adams, Washington, Fisher Ames, and others were most efficient in organizing and shaping the policy of the new government. As the Declaration of Independence was chiefly the work of Jefferson, so the Constitution of the United States was that of Hamilton and Madison.

In all history an era of strife has been followed by one of marked mental vigor. Thus, as one would expect, the generation that directly followed the adoption of the Constitution gave us the classics of American literature.

Irving was the first American author to secure general recognition at home and abroad. In 1809 appeared his inimitable *Diedrich Knickerbocker's History of New York*, and, about ten years later, his *Sketch Book*. The creatures of his fancy quickly passed into the life of the people. Even now, Ichabod Crane and Rip Van Winkle are as familiar to us as if we had lived in Sleepy Hollow and known them all our days. Bryant wrote his *Thanatopsis* in 1812, when he was only eighteen years old. Cooper laid the foundation of American romance. His descriptions of American scenery, the Indian, and life at sea, were eagerly read on both sides of the Atlantic. Simms wrote of Southern scenes and characters. Poe, the most imaginative of our poets, made himself famous by *The Bells* and *The Raven*. Emerson's essays, by their original thought and brilliant style, caused at once a profound impression. Hawthorne's *Scarlet Letter*, *House of the Seven Gables*, and *Marble Faun* ranked him with the great novelists of all time. Longfellow's poems touched the heart of the people, and quickly found their way into the reading books

[1] Hamilton, Jay, and Madison wrote a series of powerful and convincing essays favoring the adoption of the Constitution. These were at first published as newspaper articles, but were afterwards collected in a volume known as the *Federalist*—the "political classic of the United States."

of the schools; and the verses of Whittier, the Quaker poet and abolitionist, have been repeated on almost every high-school stage in the land. Lowell, a brilliant essayist and poet, wrote much to stir the North in opposition to slavery. Dr. Holmes wrote many essays, novels, and poems.

In no branch of literature have American authors achieved greater success than in history. Prescott wrote of Spain and Spanish America; Motley, of the Netherlands; Bancroft, of the United States. Parkman is the author of a series of charming and valuable books covering the history of the French in America. Fiske's works also make entertaining many chapters of our own history.

To chronicle the constantly increasing list of our authors and their works would require a volume of itself. American authors are known and their writings read in all parts of the civilized world.

In journalism our progress has been especially marked. At the opening of the Revolution, only 37 papers circulated in the colonies. There are now issued in the United States over 20,000 newspapers and periodicals. Popular education has made us a peculiarly enlightened nation, and statistics prove that "our people read as much as all the rest of the world who read at all."

Philanthropic and Religious Institutions.— In nothing do we see the ameliorating and elevating influences of our time more than in the generosity with which charitable institutions and philanthropic associations have, of late years, been founded and supported. As the country has grown in size, population, and wealth, relief has been more widely extended to human suffering, and efforts have been more urgently made to elevate the moral and religious condition of our race the world over.

EPOCH VI. DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATION (SINCE 1861).

1. Progress and Problems of this Epoch.
2. Johnson's Administration. (1865-69.)
   1. Disbanding of the Union Army.
   2. Domestic Affairs.
      - a. Reconstruction Policy of the President.
      - b. The Thirteenth Amendment.
      - c. Reconstruction Policy of Congress.
      - d. Seceded States Admitted.
      - e. Impeachment of the President
      - f. The Fourteenth Amendment.
   3. Foreign Affairs.
      - a. French in Mexico.
      - b. Laying of the Atlantic Cable.
      - c. Purchase of Alaska.
      - d. Treaty with China.
   4. Political Parties.
3. Grant's Administration. (1869-77.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      - a. Pacific Railroads
      - b. The Fifteenth Amendment.
      - c. Fires.
      - d. Railroad Panic.
      - e Indian Wars.
      - f. Centennial Exhibition.
   2. Foreign Affairs. — Treaty of Washington.
   3. Political Parties.
4. Hayes's Administration. (1877-81.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      - a. U. S. Troops in the South Withdrawn.
      - b. Railroad Strike.
      - c. Changes in Currency.
   2. Political Parties.
5. Garfield and Arthur's Administration. (1881-85.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      - a. Assassination of President Garfield.
      - b. Accession of Arthur.
      - c. Chinese Exclusion.
      - d. Civil Service Bill.
      - e. Letter Postage.
      - f. New Navy Begun.
   2. Political Parties.
6. Cleveland's First Administration. (1885-89.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      - a. Presidential Succession Law.
      - b. Electoral Count Act.
      - c. Strikes and Labor Disturbances.
      - d. Earthquakes.
      - e. Statue of Liberty.
      - f. Interstate Commerce Act.
   2. Political Parties.
7. Harrison's Administration. (1889-93.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      - a. The Johnstown Flood.
      - b. The Tariff.
      - c. Pensions
      - d. Ballot Reform.
      - e. Oklahoma.
      - f. Indian Troubles.
      - g. Labor Troubles.
      - h. Chinese Exclusion.
   2. Foreign Affairs. — International Copyright.
   3. Political Parties.
8. Cleveland's Second Administration. (1893-97.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      - a. World's Columbian Exposition.
      - b. Repeal of Silver Purchase Law.
      - c. The Tariff.
      - d. Repeal of the Force Bill.
      - e. Great Railroad Strike.
   2. Foreign Affairs.
      - a. Hawaii.
      - b. The Venezuelan Boundary.
   3. Political Parties.
9. McKinley's Administration. (1897-1901.)
   1. Domestic Affairs.
      - a. The Tariff.
      - b. Gold Standard Act.
      - c. Galveston Disaster.
   2. War with Spain. (1898.)
      - a. Causes.
      - b. Fighting in Philippines.
      - c. Fighting in West Indies.
      - d. Peace.
      - e. Cost of the War.
   3. Insular Affairs.
      - a. Hawaii.
      - b. Tutuila.
      - c. Wake.
      - d. Porto Rico.
      - e. Philippines.
      - f. Cuba.
   4. Foreign Affairs.
      - a. Chinese Disorders.
      - b. Alaska Boundary.
   5. Political Parties.
   6. Assassination of McKinley.
10. Roosevelt's Administration, etc. (to be added by the pupil).
11. Industrial History.
12. New States.
13. Progress in Civilization.

RECENT EVENTS

ROOSEVELT'S ADMINISTRATION (1901–)[1]

Domestic Affairs.—*Isthmian Canal.*—The project of a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, or near it, occupied public attention for many years. A French company spent millions in an attempt to build a canal across the isthmus, but failed through poor management before the work was half done. Our government had a thorough survey made of this route, and also of the Nicaragua route across the southern part of Central America. The owners of the French canal having offered to sell their rights and property for $40,000,000, Congress passed a law (1902) authorizing the President to purchase and complete it, or to build the

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

[1] Theodore Roosevelt was born in New York, 1858. In his boyhood he was weak in body but strong in spirit, and in time he overcame his infirmities and became robust. He took great interest in athletics. He graduated at Harvard in 1880, and two years later became a member of the New York legislature, where he secured the passage of a civil service reform law. In 1889–95 he was a member of the national Civil Service Commission (p. 327). He resigned this position to become a police commissioner in New York city, where he was noted for his strict enforcement of the laws. Appointed Assistant Secretary of the Navy (1897), he had much to do in making our naval forces ready for the war with Spain; and as lieutenant colonel and afterwards colonel of the "Rough Riders" he played a conspicuous part in the Santiago campaign. In the fall of 1898 he was elected governor of New York, and in 1900 Vice President.

Nicaragua canal in case satisfactory title and control of the Panama route could not be obtained. The next year, accordingly, a treaty was negotiated with Colombia, securing practically permanent control of a six-mile strip across the Isthmus of Panama on the payment of $10,000,000 and an annual rental of $250,000.

Chinese Exclusion (1902). — The exclusion of Chinese laborers (pp. 327, 333) was continued. The law was also applied to the islands belonging to the United States. Chinese laborers are not allowed to enter any of our insular possessions, and those already living there — many thousand in number — can not move from one island group to another or to the mainland part of our country.

Anthracite Coal Strike (1902).— Through the organization of labor and of capital in our country, it had come about that the wages of workers in most of the bituminous coal mines were fixed each year by agreement between representatives of the miners and of the mine owners. The miners' union proposed a similar arrangement for the anthracite mines, but the mine owners declined. In May, 1902, the anthracite miners struck for higher pay and shorter hours. They were aided by contributions from the bituminous workers and others. The strike lasted so long that the resulting shortage of coal became a serious menace to the public health in some cities and to the many industries dependent on hard coal for fuel. President Roosevelt finally proposed that the questions at issue be submitted to the arbitration of a commission selected by him. Both sides having approved of the commissioners appointed, work was resumed late in October.

Department of Commerce and Labor (1903).— A ninth member was added to the President's Cabinet[1] in the

[1] The eighth member is the Secretary of Agriculture, added in 1889. See also p. 329.

person of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor. The work of the new executive department is to promote the interests of commerce, manufactures, fisheries, and labor, largely by collecting and publishing information on these subjects. One bureau in the department has power to investigate the organization and working of any trust or corporation (except railroads) engaged in interstate or foreign commerce.

Insular Affairs.—*Cuba.*—Elections having been held under the Cuban constitution, the United States troops were withdrawn and the control of the island was turned over to its own government, May 20, 1902.

The Philippine Government Act (July 1, 1902) established a plan of civil government for the Philippines. Heretofore the President had governed these islands through the army and the Philippine Commission (p. 351). The new plan provided for a legislature of two houses: one consisting of the Philippine Commission, and the other of a Philippine assembly elected by the Filipinos. The governor, heads of the Philippine executive departments, and members of the Commission are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate. This act of Congress contained also many guarantees of liberty to the Filipinos, but did not make them citizens of the United States.

APPENDIX

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1511.	San Juan, in Porto Rico, founded by Ponce de Leon; oldest city in United States territory	30
1513.	Ponce de Leon reached Florida, March 27	30
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1519–21.	Cortes conquered Mexico	29
1520–22.	Magellan sailed through the Strait of Magellan and the Pacific Ocean, and discovered the Philippines. One of his vessels, returning home by the Cape of Good Hope, made the first circumnavigation of the globe.	29
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1620.	Pilgrims founded Plymouth; first permanent English settlement in New England (first landing there occurred December 21)	60
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DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident—that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundations on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

1. He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

2. He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operations till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

3. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the Legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

4. He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

5. He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

6. He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without, and convulsions within.

7. He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass

others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

8. He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

9. He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

10. He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

11. He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our Legislatures.

12. He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

13. He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation;

14. For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

15. For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States;

16. For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

17. For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

18. For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of a trial by jury;

19. For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offenses;

20. For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

21. For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

22. For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

23. He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

24. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

25. He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

26. He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

27. He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an un-

warrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them as we hold the rest of mankind — enemies in war; in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved, and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.
Josiah Bartlett,
William Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.
Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND.
Stephen Hopkins,
William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT.
Roger Sherman,
Samuel Huntington,
William Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK.
William Floyd,
Philip Livingston,
Francis Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY.
Richard Stockton,
John Witherspoon,
Francis Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abraham Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA.
Robert Morris,
Benjamin Rush.
Benjamin Franklin,
John Morton,
George Clymer,
James Smith,
George Taylor,
James Wilson,
George Ross.

DELAWARE.
Cæsar Rodney,
George Read,
Thomas M'Kean.

MARYLAND.
Samuel Chase,
William Paca,
Thomas Stone,
Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.
George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Thomas Jefferson,
Benjamin Harrison,
Thomas Nelson, Jun.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA.
William Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA.
Edward Rutledge,
Thomas Heyward, Jun.,
Thomas Lynch, Jun.,
Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA.
Button Gwinnett.
Lyman Hall,
George Walton.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

WE, the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.—Legislative Department.

SECTION I. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION II.—CLAUSE 1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

CLAUSE 2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

CLAUSE 3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

PREAMBLE.—Name the six objects of the Constitution. Who "ordained and established" this Constitution? Is the "union" one of states or of people? What branches of government are established under the first three articles of the Constitution?

ARTICLE I.—*Section* 1. What body has the "power of legislation"? (*Note.*—The "power of legislation" is that of making laws.) Of what does Congress consist?

Section 2. Who compose the House of Representatives? Who choose the representatives? What are the necessary qualifications of an elector (or voter) for a representative? How long is the term of a representative? Name the three qualifications necessary for a representative. Is a foreign-born person eligible to the office of representative? How are representatives and direct taxes to be apportioned among the states? How was the representative population of the different states to be determined? What limit is there to the number of representatives? Is every state entitled to representation? How many members were there in the first House of Representatives? How often must the Census be taken? How are vacancies in the House to be filled? Who elect the officers of the House?

CLAUSE 4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

CLAUSE 5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III.—CLAUSE 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

CLAUSE 2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

CLAUSE 3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

CLAUSE 4. The Vice President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

CLAUSE 5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

CLAUSE 6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: when sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

CLAUSE 7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION IV.—CLAUSE 1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

What body has the sole power of impeachment? (*Notes.*— The first census was taken in 1790; the "ratio of representation" being one representative for 33,000 persons. The number of representatives is fixed by law each decade. The law of 1901 made it 386, and the "ratio of representation", according to the census of 1900, is 193,167 persons for each representative. In March of the odd year there is a new House of Representatives. Each organized territory has a delegate who can sit in the House, but not vote. The states are each divided, by its own laws, into congressional districts, as many as the number of representatives to which it is entitled; and the electors in each one of these vote for their representative. The phrase "all other persons" meant "slaves"; but this has been amended by the XIVth Amendment. The speaker is always a member of the House; the clerk, sergeant-at-arms, chaplain, etc., are not members. To impeach an officer is to accuse him of official misconduct.)

Section 3. Of how many members does the Senate of the United States consist? Who elect the senators? What is a senator's term of office? Explain the classification originally made. What was the object? How are vacancies filled? State the three qualifications necessary for a senator. Who is the president of the Senate? When only can he vote? Who chooses the other officers of the Senate? When can the Senate choose a president *pro tempore* (for the time being)? What "sole power" does the Senate possess? Who presides when the President of the United States is impeached? What number is needed to convict? What penalties can be inflicted in case of conviction? Is a person so convicted liable to a trial at law for the same offense?

Section 4. Who prescribes the "time, place and manner" of electing representatives and senators? What power has Congress over the state regulations? How often, and when, must Congress meet? (*Note.*—Congress has pro-

CLAUSE 2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION V.—CLAUSE 1. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

CLAUSE 2. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

CLAUSE 3. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

CLAUSE 4. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION VI.—CLAUSE 1. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

CLAUSE 2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION VII.—CLAUSE 1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

CLAUSE 2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections

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scribed that senators shall be chosen in the following manner: The Legislature elected last before the end of the senatorial term, on the second Tuesday after its first session, shall choose the next senator. The two branches of the Legislature shall meet separately and vote *viva voce*. They shall then assemble together, and if they agree on any person, he shall be considered duly elected; if they disagree, the joint meeting shall vote *viva voce* from day to day, at 12 M. until a choice is made.)

Section 5. Who decides upon the "elections, returns and qualifications" of the representatives and of the senators? What number of the members is necessary for a quorum (needed to do business)? What business can a minority transact? What power is given each house of Congress of making and enforcing rules? What is the law with regard to keeping and publishing a journal of the proceedings? When must the yeas and nays be entered on the journal? What restriction is there upon the time and place of adjournment?

Section 6. Who fixes and pays the salaries of members of Congress? What special privileges are granted to members of Congress? To what offices are members of Congress ineligible? Can a Congressman hold another office at the same time?

Section 7. What bills must originate in the House of Representatives? What authority is given the Senate with regard to such bills? Describe the three ways in which a bill may become a law — (1) With the President's concurrence; (2) over his veto (I forbid); and (3) by non-return within ten days. What "orders, resolutions, and

at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sunday excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

CLAUSE 3. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION VIII.—CLAUSE 1. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

CLAUSE 2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

CLAUSE 3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

CLAUSE 4. To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

CLAUSE 5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

CLAUSE 6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

CLAUSE 7. To establish post offices and post roads;

CLAUSE 8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

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votes" must be submitted to the President? What is the object of this provision? (*Notes.*—In case a vacancy occurs in the senatorial representation of any state, the governor of the state can appoint a senator to fill the place, who can hold office only until the next session of the Legislature. The method of representation in the Senate gives in that body perfect equality to all the States, Rhode Island having the same power as Virginia. A senator is chosen by the Legislature, a representative by the people; a senator serves for six years, a representative for two. The Senate tries an officer for misconduct, but he must be impeached by the House of Representatives. The salary of a Congressman is now $5,000 per year, and mileage (20 cents per mile for every mile of travel by the usual route in coming and going). The speaker of the House, and the president *pro tempore* of the Senate have each a salary of $8,000 per year. One third of the Senate retire from office every two years. By the term "a Congress" is meant the body of senators and representatives holding office during any one representative term of two years; the Congress which began its term March 4, 1901, was the 57th. Each Congress "ends at noon of the 4th of March next succeeding the beginning of its second regular session." The committees in the House are appointed by the Speaker; those in the Senate by itself. The classification of the Senate makes it a more efficient and conservative body than the House, since in the former there are always two thirds of the number old members, while the House is all new every two years. If the president of the Senate were a senator, it would give extra power to one state, which would be contrary to the plan of that body.

Section 8. These eighteen clauses enumerate the *powers granted to Congress.* What power has Congress with regard to taxes? Duties or imposts (taxes on imported articles)? Duties on exports are prohibited by Sec. 9. Clause 5.) Excises (taxes on articles produced in the country). Borrowing money? Regulating commerce? Naturalization? Bankruptcies? Coining money? Counterfeiting? Post offices and post roads? Authors and inventors? Inferior courts? Piracies? Declaring war? Raising and supporting armies? A navy? Government of the land

CLAUSE 9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

CLAUSE 10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

CLAUSE 11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

CLAUSE 12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

CLAUSE 13. To provide and maintain a navy;

CLAUSE 14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

CLAUSE 15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

CLAUSE 16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

CLAUSE 17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings;—And

CLAUSE 18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION IX.—CLAUSE 1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

CLAUSE 2. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

CLAUSE 3. No bill of attainder or ex-post-facto law shall be passed.

CLAUSE 4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

CLAUSE 5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

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and naval forces? Calling forth the militia? Organizing the militia? Over what places has Congress exclusive legislation? What power is finally given to Congress to enable it to enforce its authority? What four restrictions upon the Congressional powers are made in this section? (See clauses 1, 2, 16 and 17.) (*Notes.*—Taxes may be either direct or indirect; the former are laid directly upon persons or property; the latter upon articles imported or consumed. Naturalization is the process by which a foreign-born person becomes a citizen. The process of naturalization is as follows: (1.) The person declares, on oath before the proper authority, his intention of becoming a citizen of the United States. (2.) Two years, at least, having elapsed, the person takes the oath of allegiance, when he must prove by witness that he has resided in the United States five years and in the state where he seeks to be naturalized one year; that he has borne a good moral character, and has been well-disposed toward the government. The copyright, or exclusive right of publishing a book, is given to an author for 28 years, with the privilege of extension 14 years longer. An international copyright law was enacted in 1891. A patent is now granted to an inventor for 17 years, without the privilege of extension. Any crime punishable with death is a felony. "Letters of marque and reprisal" are commissions given to persons authorizing them to seize the property of another nation. By the term "high seas" is meant the open sea, the highway of nations.)

Section 9. Eight clauses now follow, enumerating the *powers denied to Congress*. What prohibition was made concerning the slave-trade? Writ of habeas corpus? Bill of attainder? Ex-post-facto law? Direct tax? Exports from any state? Trade between the United States? Payments from the Treasury? Titles of nobility? United States office-holder receiving presents from a foreign power? (*Notes.*—The first clause referred to the slave trade,

CLAUSE 6. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

CLAUSE 7. No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law: and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

CLAUSE 8. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION X.—CLAUSE 1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

CLAUSE 2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any impost or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and impost, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

CLAUSE 3. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.—Executive Department.

SECTION I.—CLAUSE 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

CLAUSE 2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

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or the importation of negroes from Africa for the purpose of enslaving them. A law was passed prohibiting the trade after January 1, 1808 and in 1820 the trade was declared to be piracy. A writ of habeas corpus is a written order from a magistrate directing that a certain person shall be brought before him; its object is to guard against false imprisonment or trial in a prejudiced court. A bill of attainder is an English term, meaning an act which without trial inflicts death for treason; attainder of treason can not in the United States work "corruption of blood" so as to prevent a person from transmitting lands to his descendants. An ex-post-facto law makes an act criminal or penal which was not so at the time it was committed. A United States office-holder, wishing to accept a present or distinction offered him by any foreign power, must ask permission of Congress before he can receive it.)

Section 10. Three clauses now follow enumerating the *powers denied to the several States.* What prohibition was made with regard to treaties? Letters of marque and reprisal? Coinage of money? Issuing bills of credit (bills to circulate as money)? Making any other legal tender than gold or silver? A bill of attainder? An ex-post-facto law? The impairing of contracts? Titles of nobility? Imposts? Keeping troops? Making peace or war?

ARTICLE II.—*Section* 1. In whom is the executive power vested? (*Note.*—The executive power is that of executing the laws.) How long is the President's term of office? The Vice President's? Who are the presidential electors? How many are there from each state? Who are ineligible to the office? (*Note.*—The next clause in the original Constitution described the method of electing a President (pp. 165, 186), but this has been superseded by the

Clause 3. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

Clause 4. No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years resident within the United States.

Clause 5. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

Clause 6. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Clause 7. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION II.—Clause 1. The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

Clause 2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

XIIth Amendment.) What power has Congress over the electors? What are the necessary qualifications for the office of President? In case of a vacancy, who would become President? (*Note.*—In case of a vacancy in the office of both President and Vice President, the office of President will devolve, in regular succession, upon the members of the cabinet (page 328). The electors are now chosen on "the Tuesday next after the first Monday in the last November" of each presidential term of office. The electors meet to cast their ballots, generally at the capital of each state, on "the second Monday in January next following their appointment." When the plan of choosing electors was originally adopted, it was intended to choose good men who should themselves select the President; but it soon came about that the electors were pledged to their respective candidates before their own election. The President's salary is $50,000 per year, together with the use of the White House.) Can the salary of a President be changed during his term of office? Can he receive any other emolument from the national or any state government? Repeat the President's oath of office.

Section 2. Three clauses now follow enumerating the *powers granted to the President.* What authority has the President over the United States army and navy? State militia? The chief officers of the different executive departments? (See pp. 171, 329.) Reprieves and pardons? The making of treaties? Appointment of ambassadors? Judges of the Supreme Court, etc.? Filling vacancies?

CLAUSE 3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION III.—He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION IV.—The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.—Judicial Department.

SECTION I.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION II.—CLAUSE 1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more States;—between a State and citizens of another State;—between citizens of different States;—between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

CLAUSE 2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

Section 3. Defines the *duties of the President*. Name these duties with regard (1) to Congress, (2) to ambassadors, and (3) to United States officers. (*Note.*—Washington and Adams in person read their messages to Congress; the present plan of sending the message by a private secretary was commenced by Jefferson.)

Section 4. For what crimes and in what way may any United States officer be removed from office?

ARTICLE III.—*Section* 1. In what is the judicial power of the United States vested? (*Note.*—The judicial power is that of interpreting and applying the laws.) How long do the judges hold office? Can their salary be changed during their term of office?

Section 2 defines the *jurisdiction of the United States Courts*. Name the cases to which the judicial power of the United States extends. In what cases does the Supreme Court have original jurisdiction? Appellate jurisdiction? What is the law with regard to trial by jury? Where must such a trial be held? Where may a crime be committed "not within a state?" (*Notes.*—The Supreme Court consists of a chief justice and eight associate justices. The salary of the chief justice is $10,500 and that of an associate $10,000 per annum. This court meets at Washington annually on the first Wednesday in December. A citizen of the District of Columbia, within the meaning of the Constitution as above, is not a citizen of a State. By original jurisdiction is meant the court in which the case begins; by appellate, is indicated a trial after an appeal from a lower court.)

CLAUSE 3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury, and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION III.—CLAUSE 1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

CLAUSE 2. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

CLAUSE 3. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason; but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.—General Provisions.

SECTION I.—Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State; and the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION II.—CLAUSE 1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

CLAUSE 2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

CLAUSE 3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION III.—CLAUSE 1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

CLAUSE 2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION IV.—The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against inva-

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Section 3. In what does treason consist? What proof is required? Who fixes the punishment? What limit is assigned?

ARTICLE IV.—*Section* 1. What is the law with regard to state records, judicial proceedings, etc.?

Section 2. What privileges has the citizen of one state in all the others? Can a criminal or an apprentice escape by fleeing into another state? (*Note.*—Clause 3 originally included fugitive slaves, but that application was annulled by the XIIIth Amendment.)

Section 3. State the law with regard to the formation and admission of new states. What power has Congress over the territory and property of the United States?

sion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the executive (when the Legislature can not be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.—Power of Amendment.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.—Miscellaneous Provisions.

Clause 1. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the confederation.

Clause 2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

Clause 3. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.—Ratification of the Constitution.

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

Section 4. What must Congress guarantee to every state? When must Congress protect the states?

Article V.—State the two ways in which amendments to the Constitution may be proposed. The two ways in which they may be ratified. What restriction in this article has now lost all force? What provision for the benefit of the smaller states is attached to this article?

Article VI.—What debts did the United States assume when the Constitution was adopted? What is the supreme law of the land? Who are required to take an oath or affirmation to support the Constitution of the United States? Can a religious test be exacted?

NEW HAMPSHIRE.
JOHN LANGDON,
NICHOLAS GILMAN.

MASSACHUSETTS.
NATHANIEL GORHAM,
RUFUS KING.

CONNECTICUT.
WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON,
ROGER SHERMAN.

NEW YORK.
ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

NEW JERSEY.
WILLIAM LIVINGSTON,
DAVID BREARLEY,
WILLIAM PATERSON,
JONATHAN DAYTON.

PENNSYLVANIA.
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,
THOMAS MIFFLIN,
ROBERT MORRIS,
GEORGE CLYMER,
THOMAS FITZSIMONS,
JARED INGERSOLL,
JAMES WILSON,
GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.

DELAWARE.
GEORGE READ,
GUNNING BEDFORD, JR.,
JOHN DICKINSON,
RICHARD BASSETT,
JACOB BROOM.

MARYLAND.
JAMES MCHENRY,
DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS JENIFER,
DANIEL CARROLL.

VIRGINIA.
JOHN BLAIR,
JAMES MADISON, JR.

NORTH CAROLINA.
WILLIAM BLOUNT,
RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT,
HUGH WILLIAMSON.

SOUTH CAROLINA.
JOHN RUTLEDGE,
CHARLES C. PINCKNEY,
CHARLES PINCKNEY,
PIERCE BUTLER.

GEORGIA.
WILLIAM FEW,
ABRAHAM BALDWIN.

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

AMENDMENTS

To the Constitution of the United States, Ratified according to the Provisions of the Fifth Article of the Foregoing Constitution.

ARTICLE I.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.—A well-regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE VII. What was necessary for the adoption of this Constitution? (Note, p. 104.) In what year was it adopted?

AMENDMENTS. (*Notes.*— The first ten amendments were proposed in 1789 at the first session of the First Congress, and in 1791 were declared adopted. They are of the nature of a Bill of Rights, and were passed in order to satisfy those who complained that the Constitution did not sufficiently guard the rights of the people.)

ARTICLE I. What guarantees are provided concerning religious freedom? Freedom of speech and the press? Peaceable assembly and petition?

ARTICLE II. What guarantee is given with regard to the right of bearing arms?

ARTICLE III.—No soldiers shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor to be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.—In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII.—In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

ARTICLE VIII.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.—The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE III. What is provided with regard to quartering soldiers upon citizens?

ARTICLE IV. What is provided with regard to unreasonable searches and warrants?

ARTICLE V. What provisions are made with regard to a trial for capital offenses? Can a person be tried twice for the same crime? Can a criminal be forced to witness against himself? When can private property be taken for the public use?

ARTICLE VI. What important rights are secured to the accused in case of a criminal prosecution?

ARTICLE VII. When is the right of jury trial guaranteed? How must a fact tried by a jury be re-examined?

ARTICLE VIII. What guarantee is given with regard to excessive bail or fine and unusual punishment?

ARTICLE IX. Does the enumeration of certain rights in the Constitution have any effect upon those not enumerated?

ARTICLE X. What declaration is made concerning the powers neither delegated to Congress nor forbidden the states?

ARTICLE XI.—The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII.—The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate;—the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted;—the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President, shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.—SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the person shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XI. (*Note.*—This amendment was proposed at the first session of the Third Congress, 1794, and declared adopted in 1798.) What restriction is placed on the judicial power of the United States? Can the citizens of one state bring a suit against another state?

ARTICLE XII. (*Note.*—This amendment was proposed at the first session of the Eighth Congress, 1803, and declared adopted in 1804. It grew up out of the contest in the House of Representatives at the time of Jefferson's election; he was not chosen until the 36th ballot.) Describe in full the mode of choosing the President by the electors. The Vice President. State the essential qualifications of the Vice President. (See Art. II., Sec. 1, Clause 4.) In case there is no choice by the electors, how is the President elected? Describe the mode of election in the House. If a President should not be chosen by March 4, who would act as President?

ARTICLE XIII. (*Note.*—This amendment was proposed at the second session of the Thirty-eighth Congress, 1865, and declared adopted in 1865. It grew out of the Civil War. See p. 314.) Repeat the amendment abolishing slavery and involuntary servitude in the United States.

ARTICLE XIV.—SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION 2. Representatives shall be appointed among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two thirds of each house, remove such disability.

SECTION 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pension and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV.—SECTION 1. The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV. (*Note.*—This amendment was adopted in 1868. See p. 315.) *Section* 1. Who are citizens of the United States? What restrictions are laid upon the states with regard to abridging the rights of citizens?

Section 2. How are representatives apportioned among the several states? How does this amend Art. I., Sec. 2, Clause 3?

Section 3. What persons are prohibited from holding any office under the United States? How may this disability be removed?

Section 4. Repeat the provision with regard to the validity of the public debt. With regard to any debt incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion.

ARTICLE XV. (*Note.*—This amendment was adopted in 1870. See page 319.) Repeat the amendment and tell its effect.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS USE

These questions are placed at the close of the work rather than at the foot of each page, in order to encourage a more independent use of the book. As far as possible, topical recitations should be encouraged. When the subject is named, the pupil should be expected to tell all he knows about it. A little patience and practice in this method will achieve wonderful results. The following pages often present topical questions in the hope of gradually leading the pupil to this system of study. The figures refer to the pages of the book.

INTRODUCTION

9. Who were the inhabitants of America a few hundred years ago? How numerous were they in our country? How long had they lived here? What people are of the same descent as the Indians? How may people have traveled from one continent to the other? Which Indians were most nearly civilized?

10. What remains of them are found? What Indian remains are found in our country? Where do they occur? What were they designed for? What proof of their antiquity? Describe the mound in Adams County, Ohio. What articles were buried in the mounds? Describe the pueblos. Where do they occur?

11, 12. What is meant by a tribe of Indians? How are the tribes arranged in groups? Name five important groups. Where did the Indians of each group live? Give an account of the Iroquois confederacy. Were there any blacksmiths, carpenters, etc., among the Indians?

13–15. Were the Indians progressive? In what were they skilled? How were they governed? How did they regard labor? Describe the life of the women. The Indian's disposition. His power of endurance. His religion. Did he have any idea of God? What is the condition of the Indians to-day?

15–17. Who were the Northmen? What traditions about their having discovered and settled America? Are these stories credible? Are there any remains of this people now existing? Were their discoveries of any value? At what date does the history of this country begin? Name the subjects and limits of the six epochs into which this history is divided.

FIRST EPOCH

19. What was the state of geographical knowledge in Europe in the fifteenth century? Why could not sailors have crossed the ocean before as well as then? Why were books of travel more abundant then? Why were they so eagerly read?

20. By what routes were goods from the East then obtained? How were these affected by the Turkish conquests? What was the commercial problem of that day? What did the Portuguese do toward solving it?

21. What was Columbus's idea? What facts strengthened his view? Why did he seek assistance? Tell something of his life.

22. Before whom did he lay his plan? How was it received? Did the king treat him fairly? To whom did Columbus apply next? How was he regarded? What reply was made him? What did his friends do for him? What offer did Queen Isabella make? Were her jewels sold?

23. What new trouble assailed Columbus? What vessels composed his fleet? Give some of the incidents of the voyage.

24. Did Columbus waver? Describe the discovery of land. The landing. When and where was this? What region did Columbus think he had reached? What was one result of this? For what did he search?

25, 26. What other lands did Columbus discover? What of the first settlement of Spaniards? Describe the reception of Columbus on his return. What was his great mistake? How many subsequent voyages did he make? When did he first reach the mainland? Who had probably reached the mainland before this?

27, 28. What did Vasco da Gama do? Cabral? Vespucius? How was America named? Why was it not named for Columbus? Who was John Cabot? What discoveries did he make? Did his discoveries antedate those of Columbus? Who was Sebastian Cabot? How were the discoveries of the Cabots regarded? Of what value were they? What four nations explored the territory of the future United States? What portion of the continent did each explore? What other nation gained part of America? What part? How?

29. What was the feeling in Spain? What effect was produced? What did Cortes accomplish? Pizarro? Magellan? Who took possession of the Philippines?

30-32. Who was Ponce de Leon? What city did he found? Why did he make an expedition? What land did he find? Why did he so name it? What success did he meet? What discovery did Balboa make? Describe the expedition of Narvaez; its fate. What became of the survivors? Describe the expedition of De Soto. What region did he traverse? What river was his burial place? When? What became of his companions? When, where, and by whom was the first town on the mainland of the United States founded? Origin of the name California? What islands in the northern Pacific did Spanish ships reach? Result? What did Coronado accomplish?

33. What did Cabrillo do? What is the oldest town in the western United States? When and by whom was it founded? What was the extent of Spanish possessions in North America in 1600?

34. What was the attitude of the French toward the New World? For what did many mariners search, after Magellan's voyage? Why? When was the northwest passage really found? Of what value is it? What did Verrazano do? When and by whom was the St. Lawrence River explored?

35. Why was Montreal so named? Who were the Huguenots? What was Coligny's plan? Give an account of the first expedition. Of the fate of the colony. Who led the second expedition? Where was the colony established?

36. What was its fate? Why did the Spaniards attack it? Did France make further attempts to found colonies in the Southeast? What French navigator was the next to ascend the St. Lawrence? How did he find things at Hochelaga? When, where, and by whom was the first agricultural colony established in America? What was Acadia? When, where, and by whom was the first permanent French settlement made in Canada? What Indians did Champlain aid?

37, 38. What lake did Champlain discover? What battle did he fight? Result? Who were the Jesuits? What did they do in America? What was their purpose? What evidences of them remain? Tell something of their heroism. Who was Father Marquette? Joliet? What did they do?

39. Who was La Salle? What did he do? Was there any permanent result of his work? What were the French claims on North America in 1700? Compare with those of Spain.

40, 41. When did England begin to play an important part in maritime enterprise? How was this shown? What did Frobisher attempt to do? With what success? What did Davis do? Describe the career of Sir Francis Drake. What was the "Spanish main"? Who had sailed around the world before Drake did? (p. 29).

42, 43. What was the view of Sir Humphrey Gilbert? His fate? Give some account of Sir Walter Raleigh. What was a patent? Describe Raleigh's first attempt to colonize America; his second attempt. How did he succeed? Why was Virginia so named? Tell of the introduction of tobacco into England. The story of Raleigh's smoking.

44. What kept the interest in America alive? What did Gosnold do? Pring? What was the London Company? What grant of land was made to it? When, where, and by whom was the first permanent English settlement made in the United States?

45. What Spanish attempt had been made to plant a colony near this? What was the Plymouth Company? What land was it to receive? What was a charter? Give some provisions of the charter granted to the London and Plymouth companies.

46. When did the Dutch begin to take an interest in the New World? Who was Henry Hudson and what did he do? What claim did the Dutch found on his explorations? What name did they give to this region? Can you tell why? (The country of the Dutch is called the Netherlands.) What became of Hudson?

47. What European settlements were there in 1600 in what is now the United States? Name the settlements that were made soon after. What centuries were characterized by explorations? Which one by settlements? State the claims of the Spanish, French, English, and Dutch. Did they know the real extent of their claims? Why did the claims conflict? How were they settled?

SECOND EPOCH

49. Name the thirteen English colonies. Were they united during this epoch? When and where was the first permanent settlement made in Virginia? What was the character of these colonists?

50, 51. Who saved the colony from ruin? Mention the services of John Smith. Some incidents of his life. Tell the story of his capture by Indians, and his escape. Why did he make some of his expeditions at this time?

52. What change in the government of the colony was made by the second charter? Was it based on the principle of self-government? What change was made in the extent of the colony? What was the "Starving Time"? Why did this happen?

53. How was Jamestown saved a second time from ruin? What change was made by the third charter? Tell what you can of Pocahontas. Where and when did the first legislative body in America meet? Of what did it consist?

54. When and by whom was the first written constitution granted in America? How much self-government was allowed by it? State some particulars of the prosperity of the colony. What was the chief product?

55. How far did the Virginia settlements now extend? How were domestic ties formed? When and how was negro slavery introduced? What white servants were there? What Indian troubles occurred at this time (1622)?

56. How did the Indian troubles end? What change was next made in the govern-

ment of the colony? Why? What was the Navigation Act? Why was it oppressive? What was the conduct of the majority of the assembly?

57. What two parties gradually grew up? Tell the story of Bacon's rebellion. Was Bacon a rebel or a patriot? What was the conduct of Berkeley?

57–59. Describe John Smith's explorations in the North. What was the Plymouth Company? What new patent did it receive in 1620, and what new name did it take? Who were the Pilgrims? Who were the Puritans? What was the difference between the Separatists and the other Puritans? Why did the Pilgrims come to this country?

60. Where did the Pilgrims land? When? Where had they intended to land? Did they have a right to settle where they did? What was their character? Tell of their piety. Of their sufferings.

61. Why did not the Indians disturb them? What Indians visited them? How did Governor Bradford reply to the threat of Canonicus? Who was Miles Standish? Tell about the scarcity of food. Did the plan of working in common succeed? How did the colony progress? Describe its government. What finally became of Plymouth colony?

62. Who settled about Massachusetts Bay? Why did this colony grow so rapidly? What settlements were included in the Massachusetts Bay colony? Did the Puritans tolerate other forms of religion? Why?

63. Give an account of the difficulty with Roger Williams. What settlement did he found? What was the difficulty with Anne Hutchinson? How were the Quakers treated? What union of colonies was formed in 1643? How long did it last?

64. What was the object of this union? What Indian chiefs befriended Massachusetts and Virginia in their early history? Who was King Philip? Cause of King Philip's war? How did the colonists protect themselves? Result of the war? How did the Navigation Act affect Massachusetts?

65, 66. Did the colonists obey it? What change was made in the government of Massachusetts? Give some account of the rule of Andros. What form of government was finally given to Massachusetts? Give an account of the Salem witchcraft. What do you know as to the general belief in witchcraft? What is a "witch"? Tell what you can of the settlement of New Hampshire; of Maine.

67, 68. With what colony were these two closely associated? Why were they so named? What two nations claimed the Connecticut valley? Give an account of the settlements at Windsor, Hartford, and Saybrook. Tell something of the Winthrops, father and son (pp. 62, 68). How were the Narragansett Indians kept from joining the Pequots against the whites?

69. Tell about the Pequot war. What three distinct colonies were formed in Connecticut? What peculiarities in the government of each? How were they combined into one?

70. Why was the charter of 1662 so highly prized? Tell about Andros's visit. Who founded Providence? When? What people settled on the island called Rhode Island?

71. What was the "religious toleration" idea which Williams stamped upon his colony? How were the two plantations united? For what laws was this colony famous? When, where, and by whom was New York first settled?

72, 73. Who were the patroons? What was the character of the history of New York under its four Dutch governors? Who was the ablest of them? How did he settle disputes with neighboring colonies? When did the colony surrender to the English? Why? What change was made in its name? Why?

74. Did the English rule satisfy the colonists? Was the English occupation permanent? For what is Dongan's governorship noted? What was the character of the

English rule during the next few years, under King James II? Who was Andros? Who was Captain Leisler? Why was he executed?

75. In what colony was New Jersey formerly embraced? Who first settled it? How did the English obtain possession of it? To whom was it granted? Where and by whom was the first English settlement made? How was New Jersey divided? Who settled the two parts? How did New Jersey come to be joined with New York? To be made a separate province?

76. Where and by whom was the first permanent settlement made in Delaware? In Pennsylvania? Who was the founder of Pennsylvania? Tell what you can of William Penn. Who were the Quakers? Tell some of their peculiarities. How did Penn obtain a grant of this territory? Why was it so named? What plan had Penn in mind?

77. What city did he found? When? Meaning of its name? How do you account for its rapid growth? What was the Great Law?

78. Give an account of Penn's treaty with the Indians. What was meant by "the three lower counties on the Delaware"? What was the connection between this region and Pennsylvania? When and how did Penn's heirs give over their title to Pennsylvania? What was the Mason and Dixon Line?

79. With what intent did Lord Baltimore secure a grant of land in America? When was the first settlement made? Why was Maryland so named? What advantage did the Maryland charter confer? What was the Toleration Act? How did religious toleration vary in the colonies?

80, 81. Give an account of Clayborne's rebellion. Of the difficulties between the Catholics and the Protestants. What territory was granted to Lord Clarendon and others? By whom was the Albemarle colony settled? The Carteret colony? Where was it located? What do you say of the rapidity of its growth? What beneficial influence did the Huguenots have on the colony?

82. What was the Grand Model? How was it unfitted for a new country?

83. Give an account of the buccaneers; of Blackbeard; of Kidd. What of the Tuscarora Indians? What were the relations between the Carolina proprietors and the settlers?

84, 85. How were the difficulties ended? How came Carolina to be divided? By what coincidence is Georgia linked with Washington? With what intention was this colony planned? Character of the settlers? Restrictions of the trustees? Result?

86. How many intercolonial wars were there? If you include the Spanish war? (See p. 88, note.) Duration of King William's war? Cause? Describe the Indian attacks upon the colonists. Tell the story of Mrs. Dustin.

87, 88. What attacks were made by the colonists in return? Were they successful? What was the result of the war? Give a complete account of Queen Anne's war. Tell the story of Mrs. Williams. Length of King George's war? Cause? Give an account of the Spanish war.

89-91. Give an account of the capture of Louisburg. Result of King George's war. Length of the French and Indian war. Cause. Give an account of Washington's journey to the French forts. His return. What did the French do in the spring of 1754? Tell the story of Washington's first battle.

93. Give an account of the capture of Fort Necessity. Tell about Franklin's Plan of Union. Name the five objective points of this war.

94, 95. Why were they so obstinately attacked and defended? Describe the defeat of General Braddock. Conduct of Washington. Give an account of the second expedition against Fort Duquesne. Who finally captured the fort? What city now occu-

pies its site? What was the principal cause of the easy capture of the fort? (See p. 97, note.) Give an account of the Cherokee war. What success did the English meet in Acadia? What cruel act disgraced their victory? What attempt was made on Louisburg?

96. Who finally captured Louisburg? Describe the battle of Lake George. The fate of Fort William Henry.

97. Describe the attack on Fort Ticonderoga by Abercrombie. When were Ticonderoga and Crown Point captured? Describe the two attempts to capture Niagara. Who forced it to surrender? When? Describe the difficulties which General Wolfe met in his attack on Quebec.

98, 99. How did he overcome them? Describe the battle on the Plains of Abraham. Result? What cities were taken from Spain? Why? What were the conditions of peace?

100, 102. What did Great Britain do with her new territory? Describe Pontiac's war. What stratagems did the Indians use? Effects of the French and Indian war? How did the British officers treat the colonial officers?

103. Describe the people of the colonies at the close of the French and Indian war. How many kinds of government? Name and define each. Mention some laws.

104–108. What kinds of local government? How did the people travel? Tell something about the first public conveyance. Name some peculiar customs. Condition of morals in New England. Laws in regard to drinking. Describe the Sunday services in a Plymouth meetinghouse. Who were entitled to the prefix Mr.? What were common people called? Tell about New England farm and village life. The houses. The kitchen. The food.

109–111. Describe the "best room." What customs familiar to us are of Dutch origin? Tell something about life in New York. In Pennsylvania. How did the style of living in the South differ from that in the North? Describe a Southern plantation.

112, 113. What is said of the luxurious living in the South? State of education in New England? Tell something of the support given to schools. Of the founding of Yale College. Of the state of education in the Middle colonies. How many colonial colleges were there? What was the state of education in the Southern colonies? Tell something about the early newspapers.

114–117. What provisions for public worship? What differences between colonial and modern industry? What were the chief occupations of each section? What was the state of agriculture? Manufactures? Commerce? Describe the trade of some New Englanders. Was money scarce? Why? How was freight carried?

THIRD EPOCH

119, 120. Describe two standing quarrels between the colonies and the British officers. Two direct causes of the Revolution. What were Writs of Assistance? The Stamp Act? Tell the story of James Otis. Of Patrick Henry.

121–123. What efforts were made to resist the law? What effect did they have? What taxes were next laid? What was the Mutiny Act? Why was it passed? What resistance to the new taxes was made by the colonists? Tell about the Boston Massacre. The Boston Tea Party. Why was the tea thrown overboard? What did the British now do?

124, 125. What parties were formed? What action did the colonists take? When and where was the First Continental Congress held? What action did it take? When and where did the first fighting occur? Describe the battles and their effects. Tell something of "Old Put."

126, 127. Tell how the battle of Bunker Hill occurred. Describe it. Effect. Describe the death of General Warren. Give some account of Ethan Allen. Why were the New Hampshire Grants so called?

128, 129. Describe the capture of Ticonderoga. Action of Second Continental Congress. What were the Hessians? What was the condition of the army? What expedition was undertaken against Canada? Describe the attack upon Quebec.

130. How were the British forced to leave Boston? How had they treated the Boston people? Describe the attack on Fort Moultrie. Its effect. Tell the story of Sergeant Jasper.

131. When was the Declaration of Independence adopted? How many colonies voted for it? What was the "liberty bell"?

133–136. How did the campaign near New York occur? Describe the battle of Long Island. How did the Americans escape? What were the prison ships? Tell the story of Nathan Hale. What battles occurred while Washington was falling back? Describe his retreat through New Jersey. Tell the story of Robert Morris. What was the condition of the army? Describe the battle of Trenton. Of Princeton. Effect of each. Tell the story of Rahl. Name the battles of 1775 and 1776 in order.

137. How did the battle of Brandywine occur? What decided it in favor of the British? What previous battle did it resemble? Give some account of Lafayette. Describe the battle of Germantown. Why did the Americans fail?

138–142. How did the campaign in Pennsylvania close? What attempt was made by the British in the North? Name the battles of this campaign. How was Burgoyne's invasion checked? How was the siege of Fort Schuyler (Stanwix) raised? Describe the battle of Bennington. For what incident is it noted? Describe the first battle of Saratoga. The second battle. Who was the hero of the fight? Tell something of Kosciusko. Of Prescott and Lee. Of Reed. Tell some incidents of the campaign. Results of the campaign.

143–146. Describe the winter in Valley Forge. The Conway cabal. What news came in the spring? Tell the history of Benjamin Franklin. What caused the battle of Monmouth to happen? Describe the battle. The treason of General Lee. What campaign was now planned by the aid of the French? How did it turn out? Tell about the Wyoming settlement. Describe the Wyoming massacre. Name the battles of 1777 and 1778 in order.

147–149. What success did the British have in the South? Describe the attack on Savannah. Who were killed? Tell something of Count Pulaski. What characterized the campaign in the North? Tell the story of General Putnam. Describe the capture of Stony Point. General Sullivan's expedition. Clark's conquest of the West. The naval successes. The famous victory of Paul Jones.

150–153. What city was captured in 1780? What result followed? Describe the battle of Camden. Tell something of the famous partisan warfare. Some leaders. Effect. Battle of Kings Mountain. Tell something of the depreciation of the Continental money.

154–156. What mutiny occurred? Tell the story of Arnold's treason. Of André's capture and fate. Of Arnold's escape and reward. In what estimation was he held? What was the condition of the army in the South in 1781? Who now took command? Describe the battle of Cowpens. Tell an anecdote of Tarleton.

157. Describe Greene's celebrated retreat. How many times did the rain save him? Illustrate the patriotism of the women. By what two battles was the contest in the South closed? Who were victorious? Describe the character of General Greene.

158, 159. What did Cornwallis do after the failure of his Southern campaign? Why

did he retire to Yorktown? What plan did Washington now adopt? Describe the siege of Yorktown. The surrender. The effect. On what plundering tours did Arnold go? Story told of Nelson? Name the principal battles of 1779–1781 in order.

160–163. Was all peril to our liberties now over? What was the condition of the country? What base offer was made to Washington? When was the treaty of peace signed? What were the results? Which States claimed lands west of the Appalachians? Why? What was finally done with the land north of the Ohio River? Tell something of the weakness of the government.

164. Describe Shays's rebellion. What need was felt? How was it met? When was the Constitution framed? Tell some of the compromises in its formation. What parties arose? How was the Constitution ratified? How many States were necessary? Describe the first presidential election.

165–167. When did the new government go into operation? Into what three branches is it divided? Of what does each consist? Tell about the State constitutions. Local government.

FOURTH EPOCH

169–174. Who was the first President of the United States? When and where was he inaugurated? Give some account of his life and character. What difficulties beset the government? Of whom did the first cabinet consist? What financial measures were adopted? By whose advice? Name the changes in the national capital. A great invention made at this time. Give an account of the whisky rebellion. Of the Indian war in the Northwest. How many States in the Union at the end of Washington's administration? What difficulty arose with Great Britain? How was it settled? How was the treaty received in this country? What treaty was made with Spain? Algiers? What was the popular feeling toward France? Why was Genet recalled? What parties now arose? Who were the leaders of each? What were their views?

175, 176. Who was elected second President? Vice President? Why? Tell something of Adams's life. What were the Alien and Sedition Laws? Why were they passed? How were they received? Describe the French difficulty during this administration. How was it terminated? What reply did Pinckney make to the base offer of the French Directory? What was the state of party feeling? Who was elected President in 1800? How? What was the important event of Jefferson's administration? Tell something of Jefferson's life and character.

178–183. How was the Louisiana purchase made? Describe the Lewis and Clark expedition. The Twelfth Amendment. Tell how Hamilton was killed. What became of Burr? Tell something of Fulton's invention. Of the war with Tripoli. Of Lieutenant Decatur's exploit. Of the difficulty with Great Britain and France. What was the Embargo Act? (The enemies of this law, spelling the name backward, termed it the O grab me Act.) What was the issue of the next political campaign? Who was elected President in 1808? Give an account of Madison's life and character.

184. Give an account of the battle of Tippecanoe. Effect of this Indian war. State how the breach with Great Britain widened. Tell about the *President* and *Little Belt*. When was war declared?

185–187. How long did the war last? What was the opening event of the war of 1812? Describe the surrender of Detroit. The battle of Queenstown Heights. The victory of the *Constitution*. Of the *Wasp*. How many prizes were captured by privateers? What are privateers? Effect of these victories? Plan of the campaign of the year 1813?

188–191. What did the armies of the Center and North do in 1813? Describe the three attacks made by Proctor. Perry's victory on Lake Erie. What issues depended on this fight? Describe the battle of the Thames. What celebrated Indian was killed? What was the effect of these victories? Describe the capture of the *Chesapeake*. What were Lawrence's dying words? Who used them in battle? What Indian difficulties occurred? Who ended them? How? What story is told of Jackson? What ravages were committed by Admiral Cockburn? Why was New England spared?

192, 193. Give an account of the campaign of 1814 near Niagara River. Who were the American leaders? What story is told of Colonel Miller? What important battle took place in New York State? Describe it. Describe the ravages on the Atlantic coast. Attack on Washington. On Baltimore. Result of these events. What was the Hartford Convention?

194, 195. Why was the battle of New Orleans unnecessary? Describe this battle. How did it happen that raw militia defeated British veterans? What were the results of this war? Effect upon new States? Effect upon the Federal party? Who was elected President in 1816? What small war was fought in 1815? What can you say of the national bank (Bank of the United States)?

196–200. Give some account of Monroe's life and character. What was the characteristic of his administration? Give the history of the United States flag. What was the Missouri Compromise? Cause of it? How many slave States and how many free States were there in 1822? Give an account of Lafayette's visit. How were our boundaries changed by treaties? What famous doctrine was advanced by Monroe? Why?

201. Describe the election of 1824. Result? What political changes now took place? Principles of each party? Champions of each party? Which party absorbed most of the old Federalists? Give some account of the life and character of John Quincy Adams. Of his administration.

202, 203. How was the protective tariff received? What new means of travel and transportation were now introduced? Significance? Who was elected President in 1828? Describe the life and character of Jackson.

205–208. What principle did Jackson introduce? What was the nullification ordinance? How did Jackson act? How did Clay pacify? What celebrated debate took place? What is said of Calhoun? Of Clay's patriotism? What action did Jackson take concerning the United States Bank? Its effect? How did speculation become rife? What can you say of the Antimasonic party? What policy was adopted toward the Indians of the middle West? Give an account of the Black Hawk war. The Seminole war. Osceola. How many new States were admitted? What difficulty occurred with France? How was it settled? Who was elected President in 1836? Give an account of his life.

209, 210. Describe the crisis of 1837. What was its effect on trade? What was Van Buren's Subtreasury Bill? Tell the story of the steamer *Caroline*. Who was elected President in 1840? Who was his opponent? Give an account of the life and character of Harrison. What was the cause of his sudden death?

211–214. Who was the next President? What trouble with his party? What of the United States Bank? Give an account of Dorr's rebellion. Of the anti-rent difficulties. Of the invention of the magnetic telegraph. Of the Mormons. Of the origin and early history of this sect. How many States in the Union at the close of this term? Give an account of the northeast boundary question. Of the annexation of Texas. Why was this measure warmly opposed? Who were the presidential candidates in 1844? Give an account of Clay. Who was elected?

215–222. Give an account of the life of Polk. What war now broke out? How long did it last? Give an account of Taylor's campaign on the Rio Grande. The capture of Monterey. The battle of Buena Vista. What stories are told of Taylor? Give an account of Kearny's expedition. Of Doniphan's. Describe the conquest of California. The capture of Vera Cruz. The battle of Cerro Gordo. What city now surrendered? Describe the battles before Mexico. The result. The terms of peace. How was the northwest boundary settled? What was the Wilmot proviso? Give an account of the discovery of gold in California. Result. How many States at the end of this term? Name the slave States. The free States. Tell about the parties and candidates in the election of 1848. Who was elected President?

223–225. Give an account of Taylor's life and character. How long was he President? Who succeeded him? What questions agitated the people? Why were these now awakened? What was the effect? What course did Clay take? Webster? Give some account of Webster. What was the Compromise of 1850? Describe each measure included in it. Give an account of the filibusters of 1851. Of the political parties in 1852. Who was elected President? Give an account of the life of Pierce. Of the Kansas-Nebraska bill. What is squatter sovereignty? Tell how the public lands have threatened the peace of the country.

228, 229. Describe the contest in Kansas. Brooks's assault on Sumner. The Gadsden purchase. The treaty with Japan. What political parties now arose? Why?

230–235. Who was elected President in 1856? Give some account of Buchanan's life. Of the Dred Scott decision. How was this regarded in the North and in the South? Why was the Fugitive Slave Law obnoxious? What were Personal Liberty bills? The Underground Railroad? *Uncle Tom's Cabin*? Give an account of the John Brown affair. How many slave States and how many free States at the end of this term? What was the question of the elections in 1860? Who were nominated for the presidency? Who was elected? Give an account of the secession of the South. When and where was the Confederate government formed? Who were elected President and Vice President of it? Give some account of Davis's life. What action was taken by the South? What was the condition of the country? Give an account of the gradual growth of the secession movement. Was war necessary? What was the condition of affairs at Fort Sumter? For what did the nation wait?

236–243. Tell about the obliteration of rank in this epoch. The improvement in the condition of laborers. Of debtors. Of schools. How did the Revolution affect our industries? The war of 1812? Mention some inventions of this time. Why did immigrants come here? What changes took place in agriculture? Mining? Manufacturing? Transportation? Commerce?

No questions are given upon the new States admitted to the Union during this epoch, as each class will naturally study chiefly that which concerns its own State, and will wish to add to the facts given here those obtained from other sources.

FIFTH EPOCH

249–257. Give an account of Lincoln's life and character. Of the condition of the country. When was the first gun of the Civil War fired? Give an account of the capture of Fort Sumter. Effects? What action did the North take? The South? When and where was the first blood shed? How did the war in Virginia open? How was Fort Monroe protected from capture? Give an account of the Big Bethel affair. Of the war in western Virginia. How and when did the battle of Bull Run take place? Describe it. How did Jackson receive the name of "Stonewall"? What decided the

issue of the battle? Effect? Who now took command of the Union troops? Describe the battle at Balls Bluff.

258–260. Give an account of the war in Missouri. What was the condition of affairs in the border States? What step did Davis take? Lincoln? What naval expeditions were made? Describe the *Trent* affair. Give a general review of the first year of the war. Describe the preservation of Fort Pickens. What was the plan of the campaign for 1862? The situation in the West?

261–266. Where was the first attack made in the West? Describe the capture of Fort Henry. Of Fort Donelson. What message did Grant send? What was the effect of these victories? What was the next movement? Describe the battle of Pea Ridge. Of Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing. How was Corinth captured? Describe the taking of Island No. 10. Effects of this campaign? What line was now held by the Union army? Describe Bragg's expedition. Was it successful? Describe the battles of Iuka and Corinth. Of Murfreesboro. Effect? What was Grant's plan for an expedition against Vicksburg? Was it successful? What event closed this Mississippi campaign? Describe the capture of New Orleans by Farragut.

267–270. Describe Burnside's expedition against Roanoke Island. What was the importance of Roanoke Island? What else was accomplished on the coast? Describe the battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*. What was the result? What was the objective point in the East? What campaign was undertaken? Who was the commanding general?

271–275. Describe the siege of Yorktown. The battle of Williamsburg. What became of the *Merrimac*? How did the Confederates thwart General McClellan's plan? Give an account of Jackson in the Shenandoah valley. What was the effect of this movement? What story is told of Jackson? Describe the battle of Fair Oaks. Who now took direct command of the Confederate army? Give some account of Lee. How was the Union advance on Richmond checked? What plan did McClellan form? Describe the Seven Days' battles and the retreat. What was the effect of this campaign?

276–279. Why did Lee now march north? Who had command of the Union army before Washington? Describe Lee's campaign against Pope. Effect? What plan did Lee now adopt? Describe McClellan's movements in pursuit. On what expedition was Jackson sent? Describe the battle of Antietam. Its effect. The battle of Fredericksburg. Give a review of the second year of the war. What Indian conflict occurred in the West? What was the situation at the beginning of the year 1863? What was the Emancipation Proclamation?

280–284. What movement did Grant make against Vicksburg? Describe this campaign. What other stronghold on the river was captured? Effect? Describe the movements of Rosecrans in Tennessee and Georgia. General Morgan's raid. The battle of Chickamauga. By what event can you recollect it? Describe the situation at Chattanooga. The battle of Lookout Mountain. Of Missionary Ridge. Its effect. The siege of Knoxville.

285–289. Describe the battle of Chancellorsville. Lee's second invasion of the North. The battle of Gettysburg. Its effect. The attack on Fort Sumter. What can you say concerning the negro troops? Give a general review of the third year of the war.

290–294. State the situation at the beginning of the year 1864. Tell about the Red River expedition. The capture of Fort Pillow. What was Grant's plan? Tell something of Sherman and Johnston. Describe Johnston's plan of defense. How did Sherman drive him back? Name the battles that occurred. Who succeeded Johnston

in command? What followed? How did Sherman capture Atlanta? What was the effect? What did Hood now do? Sherman? Describe the battle of Nashville. What was the effect? Describe Sherman's march to the sea. What was the effect?

295–299. Describe the battle of the Wilderness. By what peculiarity was it distinguished? What was the result? What battle followed? Describe it. What was the next battle? Describe it. What famous dispatch did Grant send? What was Grant's next movement? What was the effect of this campaign? Describe the three coöperative expeditions. The mine explosion. The attack on the Weldon railroad. Why did Lee send Early into the Shenandoah valley? Describe Early's raid. What Union general was now sent to this region? Describe Sheridan's campaign. His devastation of the country. His ride from Winchester. What was the effect of his campaign? What can you say of the effectiveness of the blockade? Of the blockade runners?

300–303. Give an account of the Confederate cruisers. Of the battle between the *Alabama* and the *Kearsarge*. The expedition against Mobile Bay. The expeditions against Fort Fisher. The Sanitary and Christian Commissions. Political affairs. Who was elected President? Give a review of the fourth year of the war.

304–309. Describe the situation at the opening of the year 1865. Describe Sherman's march through the Carolinas. What was the result? What was the situation at Richmond? Describe the attack on Fort Stedman. Why was it made? Describe the battle of Five Forks. The capture of Petersburg and Richmond. The pursuit of Lee. Terms of the surrender. Effect? What was the fate of Davis? Results of the war? The cost of the war? Tell about the assassination of Lincoln. What States were added during this epoch? How many were then in the Union?

SIXTH EPOCH

311–316. What can you say of the nation's progress in this epoch? What problems did it face? Who became President on the death of Lincoln? Give an account of his life. What was done with the army? What is the Grand Army of the Republic? What do you mean by "reconstruction"? What was the reconstruction policy of Johnson? What is the Thirteenth Amendment? What was the reconstruction policy of Congress? How were the seceded States finally readmitted to their former positions in the Union? Why was Johnson impeached? What was the result? What is the Fourteenth Amendment? Effect? Give an account of the French interference in Mexico. How did it end? Tell about the laying of the Atlantic cable. What new territory was added to the United States? How?

317–323. Who were the presidential candidates in 1868? Who was elected? Give an account of his life. Of the Pacific railroads and their value to the country. What is the Fifteenth Amendment? What great fires happened in 1871 and 1872? What trouble occurred the next year? What two Indian wars were fought in this administration? Describe each. Describe the Centennial Exhibition. How many States in 1876? What difficulties with Great Britain, and how were they settled? Describe the election of 1872. Give some account of Greeley. Who were nominated for the presidency in 1876? What questions were before the country?

324, 325. What was the Joint Electoral Commission? Who was elected? What was the Southern policy of President Hayes? Describe the railroad strike of 1877. Significance? What was the Bland Silver Bill? What is "free coinage"? When was specie payment of greenbacks resumed? Who were the presidential candidates in 1880? Who was elected?

326, 327. Describe the life and death of Garfield. Name the important events of

President Arthur's administration. What was the difficulty in excluding the Chinese? What is meant by "civil service reform"?

328–330. Who were the presidential nominees in 1884? Who was elected? Significance? What were the principal events in the first administration of President Cleveland? What two acts had to do with the presidency? Describe them. What is the Interstate Commerce Commission? What question was prominent in the election of 1888? Who were the candidates? Who was elected?

331–333. What were the principal events in President Harrison's administration? Tell about the Pan-American Congress. Ballot reform. How many States were there in 1892? Describe the presidential election of that year. Who was elected?

336–338. What was the Columbian Exposition? Tell something about it. What did Congress do about silver in 1893? Why? What laws were passed the next year? Describe three other important events of Cleveland's second administration. What can you tell of the Hawaiian Islands? Describe the election of 1896. What was the issue? Who was elected President?

339–346. Tell something of his life. What was done by the extra session of Congress in 1897? What was the effect of the Gold Standard Act of 1900? What was the Galveston disaster? What were the causes of the war with Spain? When did it begin? What were the chief naval battles, and the result of each? The chief operations on land? What were the results of the war?

347–353. What islands and island groups were acquired by the United States in 1898, 1899, and 1900? Give a brief history of each. What was done with Cuba? What was done in China in 1900? What is the Alaska boundary dispute? Describe the election of 1900. The death of McKinley.

353–367. Mention some of the reasons for the great industrial development of the United States. What is a trust? A trade union? Mention some details of the development of agriculture. Herding. Lumbering. Mining. Manufactures. What great change took place in the South? Mention some details in the development of transportation. Commerce. Mention the different steps in the territorial development of the country. What can you say of the growth in population? Give a brief account of the development of the post office. Education. Literature. What was the *Federalist*?

369, 370. Mention the chief events of Roosevelt's administration.

HISTORICAL RECREATIONS

1. What general rushed into battle without orders and won it?
2. What battles have resulted in the destruction or surrender of an entire army?
3. What trees are celebrated in our history?
4. How many boundary disputes has the United States had?
5. In what battle did Washington bitterly rebuke the commanding general, and himself rally the troops to battle?
6. What three ex-Presidents died on the 4th of July?
7. What cities have undergone a siege?
8. Contrast the characters of Washington and Jefferson.
9. By whom, and on what occasion, were the words used, "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute"?
10. Give the coincidences in the lives of the three great statesmen—Webster, Clay, and Calhoun.
11. How did a half-witted boy once save a fort from capture?
12. Name the retreats famous in our history.
13. When did a fog save our army?
14. When did a stone house largely decide a battle? A stone wall?
15. What general was captured through his carelessness, and exchanged for another taken in a similar way?
16. What battles have been decided by an attack in the rear?
17. Who said, "I would rather be right than President"?
18. Who would have succeeded Millard Fillmore as President if he had died in office? Andrew Johnson? Theodore Roosevelt?
19. Name the events in our history which seem to you providential.
20. What general died at the moment of victory?
21. Name some defeats which had all the effect of victories.
22. Of what general was this said to be always true?
23. When was the Mississippi River the western boundary of the United States?
24. What territory has the United States acquired by purchase? By conquest? By annexation?
25. What Vice Presidents were afterwards elected Presidents?
26. What navigator greatly shortened the voyage across the Atlantic?
27. What tea party is celebrated in our history?
28. How many attacks have been made on Quebec?
29. In what way did Washington travel from Philadelphia to Boston?
30. Why were the river St. Lawrence, Florida, St. Augustine, etc., so named?
31. What naval commander captured his antagonist as his own vessel was sinking?
32. How many expeditions have been made into Canada?
33. What do the French names in the Mississippi valley indicate?
34. What do the names New York, New England, New Hampshire, Georgia, Carolina, etc., indicate?
35. What Presidents were assassinated? What other ones died in office?

36. When has the question of the public lands threatened the Union?
37. Who, in a frail canoe, on a stormy night, visited an Indian wigwam to save the lives of his enemies?
38. How many times has Fort Ticonderoga been captured?
39. Why were Davis Strait, Baffin Bay, Hudson River, etc., so named?
40. What do the names San Salvador, Santa Cruz, Trinidad, etc., indicate?
41. In what battles had the opposing generals formed the same plan?
42. What father and son were Presidents? What grandfather and grandson?
43. Who fired the first gun in the French and Indian War?
44. How many rebellions have occurred in our history?
45. Who was called the "Great Pacificator"? Why?
46. What was nullification?
47. How many of our Presidents have been military men?
48. Why did not Webster and Clay become Presidents?
49. Who was "Old Rough and Ready"? The "Sage of Monticello"?
50. What noted events occurred on April 19?
51. In which administration was the largest number of States admitted?
52. In which administrations was none admitted?
53. By whom and under what circumstances was the expression used, "Give me liberty or give me death"?
54. Give some familiar names that have been applied to American statesmen.
55. Name our six great wars. How long did each last?
56. State the cause of each of these wars. The results of each.
57. Name the prominent commanders who acquired celebrity in each.
58. What fort was carried by a midnight assault?
59. What general escaped by riding down a steep precipice?
60. Who drafted the Declaration of Independence?
61. Name the Presidents in chronological order.
62. Who were the "bachelor Presidents"?
63. State to what party each President belonged.
64. How many of our Presidents were poor boys?
65. What party adopted the views of the old Federalists on the United States Bank?
66. How many Presidents have served two terms?
67. What battles were fought after peace had been declared?
68. Contrast John Quincy Adams and Andrew Jackson.
69. What is the object of a strike? Of a lockout? Describe several noted strikes.
70. What are the injuries that may be caused by strikes? The possible benefits?
71. On what mountains have battles been fought?
72. Who used the expression, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours".
73. Whose dying words were, "Don't give up the ship"?
74. When was a general blown up by a magazine, at the moment of victory?
75. What Indian chiefs formed leagues against the whites?
76. What celebrated statesman was killed in a duel?
77. What States were named from mountain ranges? From rivers?
78. Was Washington ever wounded in battle?
79. When were postage stamps invented?
80. In what battle did Washington show the most brilliant generalship?
81. What officer lost his life because he neglected to open a note?
82. What army retreated at the moment of victory because the fog was so dense that it did not see how successful it was?

83. Name some celebrated foreigners who have fought for us.
84. What rendered Valley Forge memorable?
85. How did William Henry Harrison gain his popularity? Zachary Taylor?
86. Give some account of the United States Bank.
87. In what war was Lincoln a captain and Davis a lieutenant?
88. What colonel, when asked if he could take a battery, replied, "I'll try, sir"?
89. What town and army were surrendered without firing a shot?
90. For how many years was the Revolutionary War carried on mainly in the North? In the South?
91. Who was Poor Richard?
92. Who were the Green Mountain Boys?
93. What colony was founded as a home for the poor?
94. What persecuted people settled the different colonies?
95. What colonies are named after a king or a queen?
96. What religious toleration was granted in the different colonies?
97. Which colonies early enjoyed the greatest liberty?
98. What colony took the Bible as its guide?
99. In what battle was the left wing, when separated from the main body by a river, attacked by an overwhelming force of the enemy?
100. In what battle did both generals mass their strength on the left wing, expecting to crush the enemy's right?
101. How many invasions of the North did Lee make?
102. What victories induced him to attempt each of these invasions?
103. By what battle was each invasion checked?
104. For how many years has the United States been involved in war?
105. What object did Penn, Lord Baltimore, and Oglethorpe each have in founding a colony in the New World?
106. What President was impeached?
107. What ex-Vice President was tried for treason?
108. What President vetoed the measures of the party that elected him?
109. Of what statesman was it said that "he was in the public service fifty years, and never attempted to deceive his countrymen"?
110. From what States have Presidents been elected?
111. Give the number and names from each State.
112. What battle did General Gates win? What battle did he lose?
113. What battles did Washington win? What battles did he lose?
114. What President-elect came to Washington secretly?
115. Give a brief history of the slavery question.
116. When were negro slaves introduced into this country?
117. Name the generals who commanded the Army of the Potomac.
118. Name the principal battles fought by McClellan, Rosecrans, Bragg, Lee, Hooker, Sheridan, Grant, Sherman, Beauregard, Meade, Pope, Taylor, Scott, Thomas.
119. Describe the "March to the Sea."
120. What two battles were fought in the "Wilderness"?
121. What was the Missouri Compromise? The Compromise of 1850?
122. What is "squatter sovereignty"? Who was its author?
123. Of whom was it said that "he touched the dead corpse of public credit, and it sprang upon its feet"?
124. What were the Alien and Sedition Laws?
125. Who was the Old Man Eloquent?

126. When was the first railroad constructed? The first successful steamboat? The first magnetic telegraph? The first sewing machine?
127. When was the Erie Canal opened? The first Pacific Railroad?
128. What President introduced "rotation in office"?
129. Why, in the Missouri Compromise, was 36° 30′ taken as the boundary between slave and free territory?
130. What is the Monroe Doctrine?
131. Who was the inventor of the cotton gin?
132. What is a protective tariff?
133. What is free coinage?
134. To what party did Henry Clay belong? J. Q. Adams? Thomas Jefferson? John C. Calhoun? Andrew Jackson? Daniel Webster? Stephen A. Douglas? Alexander Hamilton? George Washington?
135. What President had not voted for forty years?
136. What two distinguished generals of the same name served in the Confederate Army? Name the battles fought by each.
137. What was the Dred Scott decision?
138. What was the Kansas-Nebraska Bill?
139. Give an account of the principal parties which have arisen since the Constitutional Convention of 1787.
140. Who were the Silver Grays? The Hunkers? The Barn-burners? The Woolly-heads? The Locofocos? The Free-soilers? The Know-nothings? The Anti-renters? The Unionists? The Stalwarts? The Mugwumps?
141. Give an account of the different attempts to lay the first Atlantic cable.
142. Give a history of the difficulty between President Johnson and Congress.
143. What nations settled the different States?
144. How many amendments have been made to the Constitution?
145. What was the Hartford Convention?
146. What is meant by "State rights"?
147. What was the Secretary of State formerly called?
148. Tell some stories illustrating the patriotism of the women of the Revolution.
149. Give an account of the public lands.
150. What State was admitted to the Union first after the original thirteen?
151. Who are the Mormons?
152. For what is Ethan Allen noted?
153. What battles have been fought in Virginia? South Carolina? Louisiana? New York? Massachusetts? New Jersey? Maryland? Pennsylvania? Georgia? Michigan? Tennessee?
154. What was the Fugitive Slave Law?
155. For what is John Brown noted?
156. Give an account of Farragut's most celebrated exploit.
157. Why was "Stonewall" Jackson so called?
158. What was the chief event of Jefferson's administration? Jackson's? Monroe's?
159. What treaties are celebrated in our history?
160. What President was once a tailor's apprentice?
161. What was the object of the "American party"?
162. What was the Gadsden purchase?
163. Name the various difficulties which have arisen with Great Britain.
164. What was the Wilmot Proviso?
165. Who was President in 1812, 1832, 1846, 1850, 1860, 1879, 1898?

166. Describe the operations of the Confederate cruisers during the Civil War. Of the blockade runners.
167. What distinguished generals have been unsuccessful candidates for the Presidency? Successful candidates?
168. Why did the French in Canada extend their explorations westward to the Mississippi rather than southward into New York?
169. What was the *Trent* affair?
170. Name and describe some important naval engagements.
171. In what battle did the defeated general leave his wooden leg?
172. What was the "O grab me Act"?
173. Who first used the expression, "To the victors belong the spoils"?
174. What is "Civil Service Reform"?
175. What right did the English and Spanish have to occupy this continent?
176. Why is this country English rather than French?
177. What are "patroon estates"?
178. What was the difference between the Pilgrims and the other Puritans?
179. Has a State any right to coin money?
180. Ought André to have been executed?
181. What President in his inaugural called attention to the fact that he was the first President born after the Revolution?
182. Who is the author of the *Thirty Years' View*?
183. What portion of the United States favored the annexation of Texas?
184. Who first used the expression, "A government of the people, by the people, and for the people"?
185. What was the town meeting of the early New England times?
186. Which Presidents were chosen by the House of Representatives?
187. Which Presidents were college graduates?
188. How many States voted for Washington the first time as President?
189. What effect did the invention of the cotton gin have on slavery?
190. What four Italians were prominent in American discoveries?
191. What was the Society of the Cincinnati?
192. What was the State of Franklin?
193. What war was waging in Europe during our King William's War? During the French and Indian War?
194. Why did the Iroquois generally favor the English rather than the French?
195. How did the English treatment of the Indians compare with the French?
196. For how many years was New York the capital of the United States?
197. What was the object of the Electoral College?
198. How were the early Presidents nominated for office?
199. What constitutes citizenship in the United States?
200. Why was not Washington inaugurated until April 30?
201. What is the longest period during which any one party has remained in power in the United States?
202. What was the meaning of the campaign cry "Fifty-four forty, or fight"?
203. What was the "Western Reserve"?
204. Which State has supplied the greatest number of Vice Presidents?
205. Have the President and the Vice President always belonged to the same party?
206. How could one elector have made Burr President instead of Jefferson?
207. In what other case could one man have changed the result of a presidential election?

NO.	STATES.	ORIGIN AND MEANING OF NAME.	DATE OF ADMISSION INTO THE UNION.	SETTLEMENT.			AREA, SQ. MILES.	POPULATION, 1900.	ORIGINAL NAMES, OR TERRITORY FROM WHICH DERIVED.
				When.	*Where.*	*By whom.*			
1	Delaware	In honor of Lord Delaware.	*1787	1638	Wilmington	Swedes	2,050	184,735	New Sweden, New Netherland, Three Lower Counties on the (Delaware.
2	Pennsylvania	Latin, Penn's Woods	*1787	1682	Chester	English	45,215	6,302,115	
3	New Jersey	In honor of governor of Jersey Island.	*1787	1664	Elizabethtown	"	7,815	1,883,669	New Netherland.
4	Georgia	In honor of George II.	*1788	1733	Savannah	"	59,475	2,216,331	
5	Connecticut	Indian, Long River	*1788	1633	Windsor	"	4,990	908,420	North Virginia, New England.
6	Massachusetts	The place of Great Hills †	*1788	1620	Plymouth	"	8,315	2,805,346	North Virginia, New England, Massachusetts Bay.
7	Maryland	In honor of Queen Henrietta Maria.	*1788	1634	St. Marys	"	12,210	1,188,044	
8	South Carolina	In honor of Charles II.	*1788	1670	Ashley River	"	30,570	1,340,316	Carteret colony.
9	New Hampshire	Hampshire, England.	*1788	1623	Portsmouth	"	9,305	411,588	North Virginia, New England, Laconia.
10	Virginia	In honor of Elizabeth, the "Virgin Queen."	*1788	1607	Jamestown	"	42,450	1,854,184	South Virginia.
11	New York	In honor of Duke of York	*1788	†1613	New York	Dutch	49,170	7,268,894	New Netherland.
12	North Carolina	In honor of Charles II.	*1789	1653	Albemarle Sound	English	52,250	1,893,810	Albemarle colony.
13	Rhode Island	Rhodes, an island in the Ægean Sea.	*1790	1636	Providence	"	1,250	428,556	North Va., New England, Aquiday, Providence and R. I. Plantations.
14	Vermont	French, Green Mt.	1791	1724	Fort Dummer	"	9,565	343,641	New Netherland, New Hampshire Grants.
15	Kentucky	Indian, Dark and Bloody Ground.	1792	1775	Boonesboro	"	40,400	2,147,174	Virginia.
16	Tennessee	Indian, River with the Great Bend.	1796	1757	Fort Loudon	"	42,050	2,020,616	North Carolina, Territory South of the Ohio River.
17	Ohio	Indian, Beautiful River	1803	1788	Marietta	Americans	41,060	4,157,545	Northwest Territory.
18	Louisiana	In honor of Louis XIV.	1812	1718	New Orleans	French	48,720	1,381,625	Louisiana, Ter. of Orleans.
19	Indiana	Indian's Ground	1816	†1702	Vincennes	"	36,350	2,516,462	Northwest Territory, Indiana Territory.
20	Mississippi	Indian, Great River, or Father of Waters.	1817	1699	Biloxi	"	46,810	1,551,270	Louisiana and Georgia, Mississippi Territory.
21	Illinois	Indian, The Men	1818	†1682	Kaskaskia	"	56,650	4,821,550	Northwest Territory, Indiana Territory, Illinois Ter.
22	Alabama	Indian, Here We Rest	1819	1702	Mobile Bay	"	52,250	1,828,697	Louisiana and Georgia, Mississippi Territory, Alabama Ter.
23	Maine	The main land	1820	†1623	Saco	English	33,040	694,466	New England, Laconia, Massachusetts.
24	Missouri	Indian, Great Muddy	1821	1755	Ste. Genevieve	French	69,415	3,106,665	Louisiana, Louisiana Territory, Missouri Ter.

25	Arkansas	From a tribe of Indians	1836	1685	Arkansas Post	French	53,850	1,311,564	Louisiana, Louisiana Ter., Missouri Ter., Arkansas Ter.
26	Michigan	Indian, Great Lake	1837	1668	Sault Ste. Marie	"	58,915	2,420,982	Northwest Ter., Indiana Ter., Michigan Ter.
27	Florida	Spanish, Blooming	1845	1565	St. Augustine	Spaniards	58,680	528,542	Florida Territory.
28	Texas	From a tribe of Indians	1845	1692	San Antonio	"	265,780	3,048,710	
29	Iowa	Indian, Drowsy Ones	1846	1833	Burlington	Americans	56,025	2,231,853	Louisiana, Missouri Ter., Michigan Ter., Wisconsin Ter., Iowa Ter.
30	Wisconsin	Indian, Wild Rushing Channel.	1848	1745	Green Bay	French	56,040	2,069,042	Northwest Ter., Illinois Ter., Michigan Ter., Wisconsin Ter.
31	California	From an old Spanish romance.	1850	1769	San Diego	Spaniards	158,360	1,485,053	New Albion, Upper California.
32	Minnesota	Indian, Cloudy Water	1858	1838	St. Paul	Americans	83,365	1,751,394	Louisiana and Northwest Ter., Minnesota Ter.
33	Oregon	Spanish, Wild Marjoram	1859	1811	Astoria	"	96,030	413,536	Oregon Ter.
34	Kansas	Indian, Smoky Water	1861	1854	Leavenworth	"	82,080	1,470,495	Louisiana, Kansas Ter.
35	West Virginia	From Virginia	1863	1764	Upshur Co.	"	24,780	958,800	Virginia.
36	Nevada	Spanish, Snow-covered	1864	1850	Genoa	"	110,700	42,335	Upper California, Utah Ter., Nevada Ter.
37	Nebraska	Indian, Shallow Water	1867	1847	Bellevue	"	77,510	1,066,300	Louisiana, Nebraska Ter.
38	Colorado	Spanish, Red or Ruddy	1876	1859	Denver	"	103,925	539,700	Louisiana and Mexican Cession, Colorado Ter.
39	North Dakota	Indian, Allied	1889	1812	Pembino	English	70,795	319,146	Louisiana, Minnesota and Nebraska Ters., Dakota Ter.
40	South Dakota	Indian, Allied	1889	1859	S. E. part	Americans	77,650	401,570	Louisiana, Minnesota and Nebraska Ters., Dakota Ter.
41	Montana	Spanish, Montaña, a Mountain.	1889	1809	Yellowstone R.	"	146,080	243,329	Louisiana (chiefly), Nebraska Ter., Dakota Ter., Idaho Ter., Montana Ter.
42	Washington	Named after Geo. Washington, first Pres. U. S.	1889	1811	Columbia River	English & Americans	69,180	518,103	Oregon Ter., Washington Ter.
43	Idaho	Indian, Gem of the Mountains.	1890	1842	Cœur d'Alène	Americans	84,800	161,772	Oregon Ter., Washington Ter., Idaho Ter.
44	Wyoming	Indian, Extensive Plain	1890	1867	Cheyenne	"	97,890	92,531	Louisiana (chiefly), Nebraska Ter., Dakota Ter., Idaho Ter., Wyoming Ter.
45	Utah	Indian, Mountain Dweller	1896	1847	Salt Lake City	"	84,970	276,749	Mexican Cession, Utah Ter.

* Date of ratifying the Constitution. † Doubtful. ‡ The blue hills southwest of Boston, the highest land in the eastern part of the State.

NO.	PRESIDENT.	STATE.	BORN.	DIED.	TERM OF OFFICE.	ELECTED BY.	VICE PRESIDENT.	STATE.
1	George Washington..	Virginia.....	1732	1799	Two terms; 1789–1797.....	Whole people...	John Adams	Massachusetts.
2	John Adams	Massachusetts.	1735	1826	One term; 1797–1801	Federalists	Thomas Jefferson.....	Virginia.
3	Thomas Jefferson....	Virginia.....	1743	1826	Two terms; 1801–1809.....	House of Rep . / Republicans..	Aaron Burr ..... / George Clinton	New York. / New York.
4	James Madison	Virginia.....	1751	1836	Two terms; 1809–1817.....	Republicans..	George Clinton..... / Elbridge Gerry	New York. / Massachusetts.
5	James Monroe	Virginia.....	1758	1831	Two terms; 1817–1825.....	Republicans....	Daniel D. Tompkins ..	New York.
6	John Quincy Adams..	Massachusetts.	1767	1848	One term; 1825–1829	House of Rep...	John C. Calhoun	South Carolina.
7	Andrew Jackson.....	Tennessee.....	1767	1845	Two terms; 1829–1837.....	Democrats .. /	John C. Calhoun ..... /	South Carolina. /
8	Martin Van Buren...	New York.....	1782	1862	One term; 1837–1841	Democrats	Martin Van Buren.....	New York.
9	William H. Harrison..	Ohio	1773	1841	One month; 1841.....	Whigs.....	Richard M. Johnson ..	Kentucky.
10	John Tyler	Virginia.....	1790	1862	3 yrs. and 11 mos.; 1841–1845	Whigs.	John Tyler	Virginia.
11	James K. Polk.....	Tennessee....	1795	1849	One term; 1845–1849	Democrats	George M. Dallas.....	Pennsylvania.
12	Zachary Taylor	Louisiana	1784	1850	1 yr. and 4 mos.; 1849–1850..	Whigs.....	Millard Fillmore	New York.
13	Millard Fillmore	New York.....	1800	1874	2 yrs. and 8 mos.; 1850–1853 .	Whigs.		
14	Franklin Pierce	N. Hampshire.	1804	1869	One term; 1853–1857	Democrats	William R. King.....	Alabama.
15	James Buchanan.....	Pennsylvania..	1791	1868	One term; 1857–1861	Democrats	John C. Breckinridge..	Kentucky.
16	Abraham Lincoln....	Illinois.....	1809	1865	1 term and 1 mo.; 1861–1865.	Republicans..	Hannibal Hamlin	Maine.
17	Andrew Johnson.....	Tennessee.....	1808	1875	3 yrs. and 11 mos.; 1865–1869	Republicans.	Andrew Johnson	Tennessee.
18	Ulysses S. Grant.....	Illinois.....	1822	1885	Two terms; 1869–1877.....	Republicans..	Schuyler Colfax	Indiana.
19	Rutherford B. Hayes..	Ohio	1822	1893	One term; 1877–1881	Republicans....	Henry Wilson	Massachusetts.
20	James A. Garfield....	Ohio	1831	1881	6 months and 15 days; 1881..	Republicans....	William A. Wheeler...	New York.
21	Chester A. Arthur ...	New York.....	1830	1886	3 yrs. 5 mos. 15 das.; 1881–85	Republicans.	Chester A. Arthur.....	New York.
22	Grover Cleveland	New York.....	1837	.....	First term; 1885–1889	Democrats	Thomas A. Hendricks .	Indiana.
23	Benjamin Harrison..	Indiana	1833	1901	One term; 1889–1893	Republicans....	Levi P. Morton.....	New York.
24	Grover Cleveland	New York.....	1837	.....	Second term; 1893–1897	Democrats	Adlai E. Stevenson.....	Illinois.
25	William McKinley...	Ohio	1843	1901	1 term and 6 mos.; 1897–1901	Republicans..	Garret A. Hobart.....	New Jersey.
26	Theodore Roosevelt..	New York.....	1858	.....	1901–	Republicans.	Theodore Roosevelt ...	New York.

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